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AMERICAN Educational Monthly, AND NEW YORK TEACHER.

CONTENTS.—OCTOBER, 1867.

| | Page. |
|---|--------------------------|
| Facts and Thoughts about Reform Schools. IV.—with Illustration..... | |
| Mrs. S. N. Rockwell..... | 375 |
| Palafittes, or Lacustrian Habitations of the Lake Neuchatel. II.—The Bronze Age..... | J. J. Stevenson..... 378 |
| The Instruction of the People in the 19th Century. V.—Popular Education in American Schools,—from the French of M. E. de Laveleye..... | Mrs. Osgood..... 381 |
| The Sceptre of King Solomon..... | M. Grümbaum. ... 386 |
| Industrial Education..... | 390 |
| Grammatical Notes. III.—The Possessive Case of Nouns..... | S. W. Whitney..... 391 |
| John Boyd*—A Story of School Life.— Chap. XXI., XXII.— | W. W. Tufts..... 395 |

| | Page. |
|--|-------|
| EDITORIAL :— | |
| Reunion | 401 |
| Characteristics of American Schools..... | 402 |
| Book-keeping <i>versus</i> Sewing..... | 403 |
| Intelligence—Educational and Otherwise.. | 404 |
| EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE :— | |
| United States—England—France—Syria— India—China..... | 405 |
| CURRENT PUBLICATIONS :— | |
| Readers—Logic—Elocution—Composition —Essays, etc..... | 410 |
| SCIENCE AND THE ARTS :— | |
| Geography, Chemistry, etc..... | 413 |

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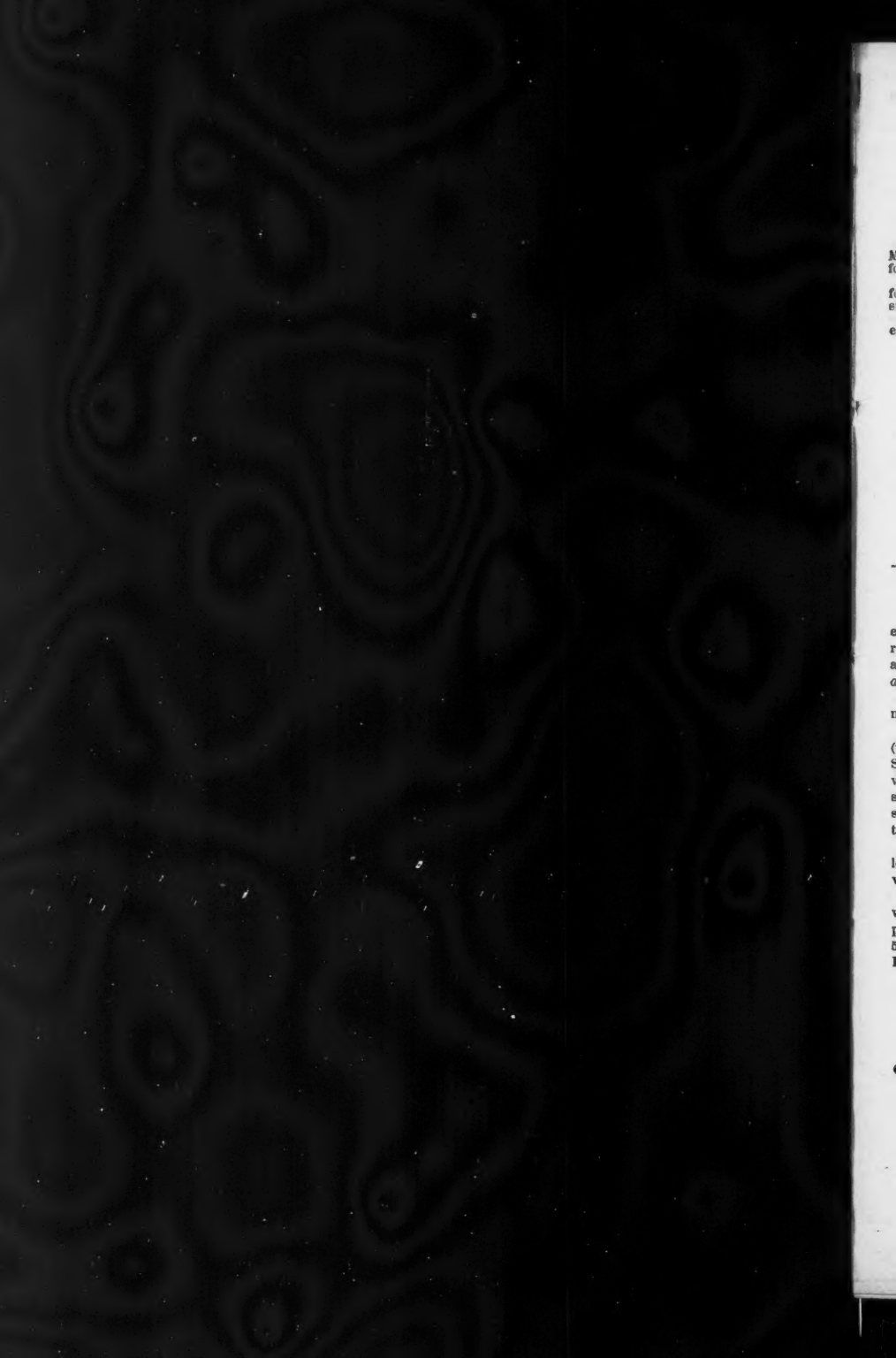
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[From Hon. D. Franklin Wells, State Supt. Public Instruction, Iowa.]

"On my accession to office as the successor of Hon. Oran Faviile, I found on the table your excellent little work entitled 'The Lawyer in the School Room.' I have given the work a favorable notice in the Iowa School Journal for June, a copy of which I have directed to you."

"We have read the book with much interest, and believe the positions taken by the writer to be sound. No teacher can rise from its perusal without having clearer views of his rights as well as of his duties. . . . The consciousness of increased strength which he will feel in consequence of the better understanding of his position, will be worth to him ten times the cost of the book."—*Iowa School Journal*, June, 1887.

[From Prof. Wm. F. Phelps, A. M., Principal of the Minnesota State Normal School.]

"It seems to me that this book must supply a want long felt in our educational work. Both teachers and parents are notoriously deficient in a knowledge of their reciprocal rights and duties in respect to the school, and I believe this little book of yours will do much toward bringing about a better understanding among them and a more harmonious working of our school machinery everywhere. I hope 'The Lawyer in the School Room' may find its way into every school room and family in the land."

[From Hon. E. E. White, late State Commissioner of Common Schools, Ohio.]

"Mr. White being much pressed by correspondence has requested me to answer your note. 'The Lawyer in the School Room' has been received and examined with great interest. It will receive a favorable notice, as it so well deserves, in the next number of the Educational Journal.—T. E. SUMNER."

"This book ably supplies a want that must often be painfully felt by teachers, school directors, and parents in cases of perplexity. By its clear, lively, and forcible treatment of every branch of the subject, it will serve to popularize correct legal ideas on several important educational points, about which there yet prevails much mischievous ignorance."—*Ohio Educational Monthly*, May, 1887.

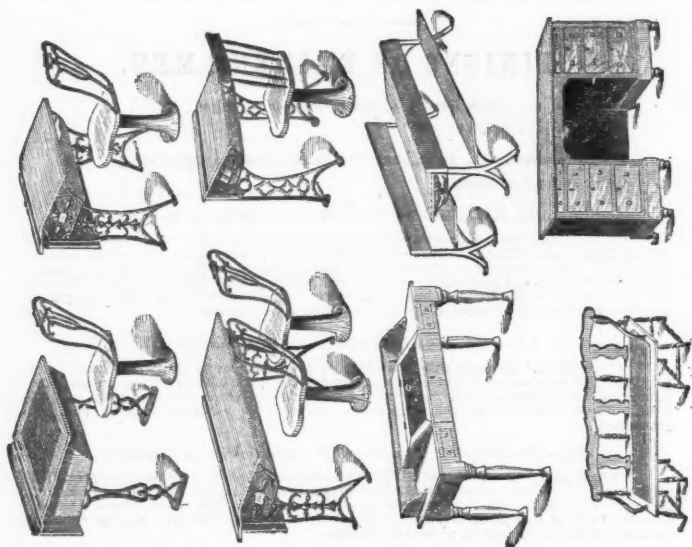
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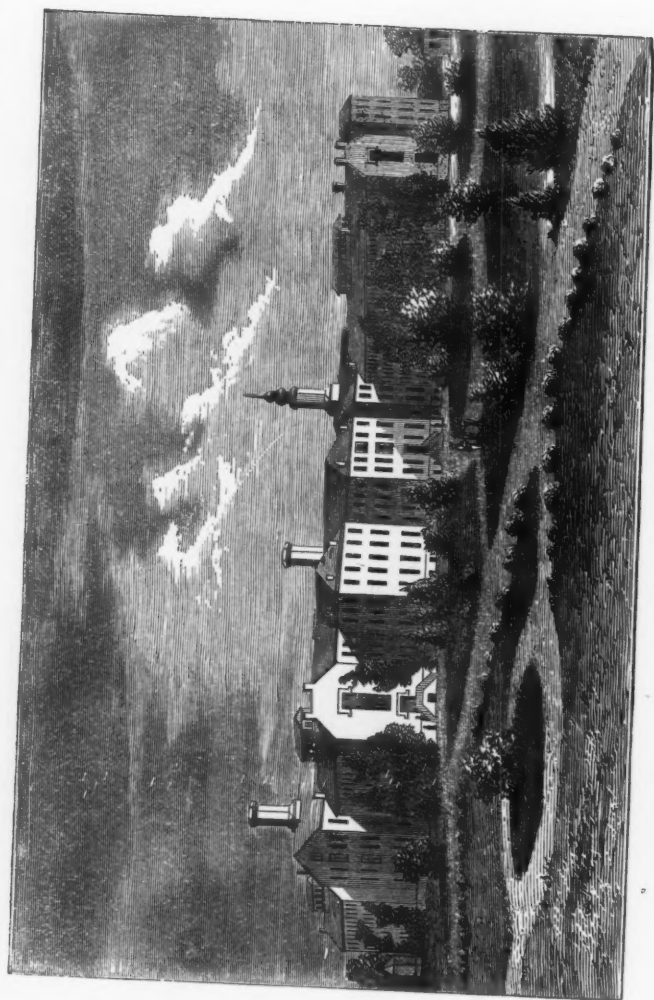
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PHILADELPHIA HOUSE OF REFUGE.

AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY.

VOL. IV.

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No. 10.

FACTS AND THOUGHTS ABOUT REFORM SCHOOLS.

IV.

CONTINUING our rehearsal of the means employed for moral education, we find that *employment* constitutes another stronghold of hope for the eradication of evil habits and formation of new ones. Constant employment is aimed at. There is to be a duty for every hour and moment. Something for the mind to be exercised upon is provided for each division of the time. Manual labor is pursued during seven or eight hours of the day by those old enough to be employed. A knowledge of some mechanical trade is acquired by many of the boys; the girls are engaged in household labors, and in learning the various arts of the needle and the scissors.

Again, literary instruction is of paramount importance. Four hours a day are devoted to intellectual improvement. And though few enter the House with any knowledge of letters, few leave it unable to read, write, and perform ordinary business transactions in figures.

There are occasionally instances of uncommon talent and capacity for literary acquirement. Some intellects under favorable auspices would develop rarely, and bring great credit upon the foster parent, the institution. When nature has thus bestowed superior abilities, the duty of the teacher, and beyond him, of the institution, is to foster and provide for the development of them, not dooming the child to the monotony of rudimental studies and dull class-mates month after month. It is a weak excuse to say that distinctions must not be made. God has made a distinction, and we sin if we do not recognize it. Unusual mental gifts bestowed upon children are solemn responsibilities to parents. Are they less so to the institution which adopts these "little ones?"

Though comparatively so little time is given to mental culture, there are strong evidences that children in these schools may improve as rapidly as in those entirely devoted to literary acquirements. These children have been led to early exercise of their faculties, to use ingenuity and reflection in carrying out their schemes of fraud and trickery. Their minds are frequently more precocious than those of children carefully reared. The

intricacies of *fractions* and *proportion* are nothing to a boy who has solved the knotty questions of supply and demand for his physical nature, day after day, under the most perplexing combinations.

It is required mainly to change the direction of their faculties, and the same abilities that made them apt rogues will create creditable scholars. A habit of reading formed in the House will be a strong safe-guard after leaving it. It has saved many a youth from fierce temptation. This fact has been recognized, and in all these schools we find well-selected libraries of attractive books. Religious instruction is also provided for, as it should be. Cheerful and tasteful chapels are connected with each school, and Sunday-schools are carried on regularly. The children are usually carefully instructed in sacred music. After the existence and providential care of God are thoroughly understood, religious teaching should be direct, pointed, *personal*. The nature of sin, the necessity of the atonement, should be carefully explained and pressed close upon the individual experience of each young heart. The Saviour must appear as their *personal* friend and example. They must feel that religion is not only a general system of truth, but an individual experience of heart and life.

Another means of promoting reformation is considered to lie in the providing of food and clothing of suitable nature. Hunger is no doubt a great demoralizer; and neat, comfortable clothing is a decided promotive to self-respect. Among the girls dress may be made an important agent by making the distinction between pride and proper self-respect clearly apparent. Neatness should be *enforced*, while individual taste should be encouraged and subjected to critical comment. After acquiring exquisite neatness, they should be allowed to make themselves look as pretty and attractive as possible. It is woman's prerogative, the title to which she has in no way forfeited. The difference between this and weak vanity or foolish gayety should be insisted upon. But it is not well to reprove if one trains a curl or two to fall on neck or brow, or wishes to wear a knot of bright ribbon at her throat. An instance is in memory where a young girl was as severely reproved by a teacher for placing a bit of green vine in her hair, "to attract attention," as if she had told a falsehood. The art of economical purchase, neat and tasteful making up, and careful arrangement of dress, should be taught. Many girls go astray for want of proper ideas on these points. It is *not* enough, as we are sometimes told, that clothing should be whole and clean. It should be well shaped, well made, and well put on. And this may be done as well in the coarse and durable material prescribed by reform-school regulation as in any other.

Exercise and amusement come in for a due share of the day. These children are, or should be made, if they are not, like others, full of a vivacity which finds an outlet in active, noisy play. The more childlike the disposition evinced, the more easily will its owner be led as other children are.

While natural and innocent gayety need not be restrained, it is yet very necessary to watch over their sports, for indications of selfishness, injustice, and anger will be very frequent. The separation of each child from all others at night, by placing it in a room of its own, and the separation of the sexes during the entire time of their stay in the House, are looked upon as wise and beneficial measures. The former certainly is, as preventing plots or evil communications, and might be wisely introduced in our boarding-schools. The latter has been the result of careful study of the subject, and is doubtless a just conclusion. But it would seem that the mutual good influences resulting from the meeting of the sexes in society, might be provided for in these schools also, by appointing lady teachers and judicious matrons among the boys, whenever practicable, and male teachers, of undoubted Christian integrity, for the girls' school-rooms.

And lastly, good nursing and attentive care of the sick, the strengthening of weak and enfeebled constitutions by the regularity and healthful habits of the inmates, are found to be worthy of classification as reformatory powers. This needs no demonstration. The strongest moral and spiritual impressions are often made in sickness, and disinterested care and kindness are appreciated. Sometimes too, a feeble, suffering child is morbidly unruly and vicious, and discovers quite a different nature on restoration to health. Yet these institutions are not hospitals, and children thoroughly diseased or requiring special treatment for long-continued disorders, should not be retained. For the application of these principles to the end desired, there are in this country, as in Europe, the congregated and family systems. A congregated school, if carefully classified and abundantly supplied with officers, must approach, practically, very near the family one, while a large family would resemble one division of the congregated institution. If the question be the comparative efficiency of a system which gathers the children into crowds of hundreds, governs them in masses by fixed regulations, and trains them by overseers, and one which divides them into small companies, placing each under the constant and affectionate care of parents, elder brothers and sisters, so far as position, age and tenderness can assume those relations, and seeking constantly to act upon individuals, not masses, no one can hesitate as to the answer. If punishment and restraint merely, be proposed, strong walls and few officers will do. But the work is reformation and establishment in habits of purity, virtue, and industry, looking to a higher result still, that of Divine love upon the heart. No series of formal services can accomplish this. The work must be individual. Each child presents a distinct problem of weakness, perversity and ignorance, and must be addressed as its own peculiar necessities require. They must be led by infinitely varied ways to the knowledge which maketh "wise unto salvation."

The New York and Philadelphia Houses of Refuge are examples of

the congregated system. In proportion to the perfection of their system of classification, will be the reasonable hope of success. It is at present far from what it should be, as we have shown in speaking of classification. They do not sufficiently provide for *personal approaches* to the children. Their officers are too few, and find it sometimes too difficult to learn even the *names* of their charges. Reformation must be from its very nature, a work of close individual culture, and just so far as we assimilate institutions to the warmth, nearness, and limit of families, we increase the probabilities of success in it. Yet congregated institutions, with careful classification, are and may be productive of good results. Even in their present state they are so, but there must be a great waste of moral forces and energies to overcome the evils resulting from crowded divisions, and still leave a balance upon the right side.

PALAFITTES, OR LACUSTRIAN HABITATIONS OF THE LAKE OF NEUCHATEL.

II.—THE BRONZE AGE.

THE differences between the palafittes of the stone age and those of the bronze are very marked. The latter are larger, more numerous, and at a much greater distance from the shore. The piles are smaller, seldom more than six inches in diameter, and project one or two feet above the bottom. They are simply sunk into the ground, and can easily be withdrawn if not too much decomposed. They occur in great numbers, and in rows trending toward the shore, which leads to the belief that they were not artificial islands, like the *steinbergs*, but the bases of lacustrine constructions joined to the shore by bridges.

Between these piles occur accumulations of the utensils and pottery characterizing this age. The latter, though still prepared by hand, and baked in the open air, is much more regular in outline, and distinguished by a greater variety of patterns than that of the previous age. The paste of the larger vessels contains siliceous pebbles, but that of the smaller ones is homogeneous. The latter are frequently coated with a glaze of graphite. On many vessels there occur simple designs, such as parallel lines or triangles, traced with some pointed tool. The vases of moderate size have usually a conical base, and must have been supported either by earthen rings or by insertion into cavities in the ground. Porringers are often found, and sometimes sieve-like vessels, which M. Desor supposes were employed in the manufacture of cheese. From one vessel, M. Desor obtained apples, cherries, wild plums, and a quantity of hazel nuts. Spindle whirls, made of baked earth, are quite common.

The metallic utensils found in Lake Neuchatel are usually well preserved. Many hatchets, weighing from three hundred to seven hundred and fifty grammes, bear no signs of use, and show only marks of hammering by which the edge was widened. Instead of a socket, some have ears on each side, curved so as to receive a forked handle; at the top the points are bent over to hold a rivet passing through the handle. Occasionally a hatchet is found having a perfect socket, round or square. Knives are numerous, usually small, but always elegantly finished. At two stations, reaping-hooks, and at one station curiously shaped instruments, resembling the razors of the iron age, were found in considerable numbers. Chisels, resembling those now used by carpenters, are of frequent occurrence. There are also fish-hooks, usually small, although here and there one of very large size is found. One from Gauderon is four and one-half inches long.

Swords are rare. The first was discovered nearly forty years ago, and was deposited in the museum of Neuchatel. It was regarded as a curiosity, but the discovery led to no new investigations. This weapon is nearly two feet long; the hilt is less than three inches long—much smaller than the smallest yet found in India. If the swords were not simply ornamental, the bearers must have been exceedingly diminutive. Poniards, too, are rare. The blades were fastened to the hilt by riveted nails. The lance-points are skillfully made, and measure from four to six inches. Arrow-heads are not numerous. Those found are barbed, and are from one to two inches long.

Ornaments and articles of luxury are as common as arms or utensils. Hair-pins, bracelets, ear-rings and pendants, and amulets, testify to the prosperity and cultivation of the tribes. The hair-pins are always ornamented. Some have a round head, open-worked, with circular holes into which gems or studs of the metal in relief were fitted. Others have a flat head or button, while others have several buttons, or rather enlargements of the stem. Bracelets are of every variety, from the simple ring to the large bracelet covered with elegant designs. Some are made of twisted strands of bronze, while others are massive cylinders, probably intended as anklets. The ear-rings are variously-shaped—sometimes triangular, and made of a thin plate, narrowing toward the point of suspension. Some of these are covered with enamel, the composition of which has not been precisely ascertained. The amulets are usually small, triangular metallic plates, supposed to have been suspended from the neck. Crescents, supported upon a stem, and some articles composed of several branches, are supposed to have had a similar use.

The composition of the bronzes of this age is not fixed. The proportion often varies from four to twenty *per centum*, according as the people found more or less difficulty in procuring that metal. Lead, iron, and nickel are sometimes found in the alloy, but in such insignificant quantities

that they can be considered only impurities in the metal. Among the palafittes of this age are found specimens which must have been worked when cold. The art of annealing bronze must, therefore, be almost as ancient as the art of preparing the alloy itself.

Along with the stones for grinding cereals, common to this and the preceding age, are found discoidal stones, four or five inches in diameter, having, in most cases, a groove on the circumference. The use of these is undetermined. Some regard them as pulleys—others think they were weights to support the warp in weaving. M. Troyon maintains that the discoids were used in games, and relies upon the fact that in Pinelli's collection an engraving represents a man holding between his hands a similar disc, on whose circumference a cord was wound to assist in throwing. Thus far these stones are found in no place except palafittes of the bronze age.

The arrangement and preservation of the antiquities within the palafittes is of value in deciding the character and uses of the buildings. The objects have not been thrown carelessly into the water, nor are they distributed irregularly. The collections occur in masses, frequently consisting only of articles of one kind. Some have asserted that these remains were hoarded beneath the water. Others think the buildings were magazines for utensils and provisions, and that they were destroyed by fire, as is indicated by burned beams, and by traces of fire upon some of the vessels. At all events the remains found in the palafittes are usually new, and few show any signs of use. The hypothesis of destruction by fire is strengthened by the experience of investigators, who maintain that it is useless to seek for valuable antiquities except in places where the wood is charred. It is highly improbable that these constructions were the only habitations. In the Canton of Zurich there have been discovered what are believed to be genuine dwellings on the mainland. These contain the same characteristic utensils as the lacustrine stations. Mounds of erratic stones are of frequent occurrence in the Canton of Neuchatel. In these Dr. Clement found bracelets and reaping-hooks like those of the palafittes. The bronze in both instances is of the same composition. All these mounds contain many objects which have evidently been exposed to fire. M. Gerlach has discovered in the alluvion of the Sionne, in Valais, bracelets of the age of bronze, accompanied by calcined bones, which would tend to prove that the tribes of that epoch were accustomed to burn their dead, and might serve to explain the rarity of human remains.

As yet nothing has been discovered respecting the religion of these ante-historic tribes. No idols are found, although the so-called lacustrine crescents may be regarded as religious emblems. These are of considerable size, in most cases measuring eighteen inches. They are rudely made, the paste is coarse, and the ornamental designs are very harsh. It is supposed by many that they were talismans, hung up at the doors of dwell-

ings. That international commerce existed during this period is abundantly attested by the presence of tin, which is never found in Alpine countries. What the people could offer in exchange for it is uncertain ; nothing resembling a coin has ever been found.

M. Desor thus sums up the characteristics of the age in Eastern Switzerland :

1. The presence of metal under the exclusive form of cast bronze, more or less pure, but with no intentional alloy of lead or zinc. The seams of the moulding are seen on most of the objects. The cutting instruments only have undergone hammering, and the articles of dress have sometimes been retouched with the graver.

2. A considerable improvement in the pottery, notwithstanding the absence of the wheel. The finer utensils are generally conical, and provided with a glass of graphite.

3. The presence of rings of baked earth to support the conical vessels.

4. The appearance of discoid stones and lacustrian crescents.

5. Spindle whirls of baked earth, replacing the stone weights of the preceding age.

6. The greater depth of the palafittes, and hence their greater distance from the shore.

7. The piles are sunk in the ground, and to this end are always hewed to a point ; the strokes of the axe are still easily recognized.

THE INSTRUCTION OF THE PEOPLE IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

V.—POPULAR EDUCATION IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS—(*Continued.*)

In the matter of instruction, as in many others, the main question is expense. In Europe, the short-sighted economy of governments, so lavish for their armies, is the chief, if not the sole, obstacle to the diffusion of education. We can easily understand that in the United States, where working men receive at least a dollar a day, so many millions of children cannot be instructed, so many hundreds of thousands of teachers paid, and so many thousand school-houses annually erected, without very great sacrifices. In truth no expense is spared, for they are aware no investment is more profitable. Here again the course pursued by America is precisely the opposite of the European plan. In Europe, where aristocratic ideas prevail, a system has been organized at great expense to furnish to the children of the wealthier classes the education which they need, while the instruction of the masses has been left to the zeal of the clergy

or to private charity. In America, where democratic principles rule, provision has first been made for the instruction of the people at the public expense, and the care of founding the institutions demanded by the superior culture of the upper classes has been left to the liberality of private citizens. On this side of the Atlantic the State has paid for those who were able to pay for themselves; on the other, it has paid for those who were unable. We cannot fail to award the preference to this last system. The Americans have thoroughly understood it, and very large sums have been voluntarily bestowed by different individuals upon the higher institutions of learning. They have nothing of that exaggerated regard for hereditary right which makes a man think that he wrongs his heirs by bequeathing a part of his fortune to some public charity. They believe, on the contrary, that it is right to devote a part of their property to promoting the progress of society. As in ancient times, the love of country is strong enough to overcome the selfishness and narrowness of family feeling. Thanks to the generosity of individuals,* the interests of liberal education are making commendable progress, but we are considering here the cost of elementary instruction only.

The average annual expense for this purpose in the free States is estimated at \$1.12 for each person. Thus Massachusetts, with 1,231,066 inhabitants, expends for her common schools, without counting the cost of building and repairing school-houses, \$1,413,600; New York, with a population of 3,880,000, spends \$4,557,000, or \$1.20 for each individual; Ohio, with 2,339,502 inhabitants, \$2,548,200; Michigan, with 749,113 inhabitants, \$2,046,000; Illinois, with a population of 1,711,951, expend \$2,046,000; California, with 379,994 inhabitants, 34,919 of whom are Chinese, \$465,000. If we consider the cities by themselves, the results are still more noteworthy and commendable. Thus, 1861, the city of New York, with a population of 900,000, devoted to her public schools \$1,488,000, or about \$1.67 per individual. The total appropriation of the French government for the same purpose amounted to \$1,202,300 in 1863.

When the civil war broke out, when the sources of public property threatened to fail amid the din of arms and the convulsions of that fearful

* Without speaking of well-known institutions, as Girard's College, in Philadelphia, or the Smithsonian Institute, in Washington, we might mention a very large number of colleges, seminaries, and academies of every grade supported in large measure by voluntary contributions. Within forty years the University of Cambridge, near Boston, has received donations amounting to nearly a million dollars. A Mr. Bussy, for example, gave over \$150,000 to the Law School, and Mr. Phillips a hundred thousand for the Observatory. Within a comparatively short time, a Mr. Putnam has given \$75,000 to endow an Academy in Newburyport; a New York merchant has devoted \$400,000 to found a Female College at Poughkeepsie, on the Hudson River, and an inhabitant of Utica has offered half a million dollars to establish an agricultural school in that city. If it is desired to found a new professorship, or to secure the services of some distinguished savant, several individuals unite, and the fund is subscribed, the income insured. Even the common people are interested in the progress of science: an Observatory has been built by means of penny subscriptions.

struggle for national existence, in spite of the enormous increase of expenses occasioned by the enrolment of forty regiments of soldiers, whose families were supported in many cases at the public cost, at the very time when the rebellious States took possession of the funds devoted to instruction, New York [city] largely increased her appropriation for public schools. Mr. Randall, superintendent of public instruction in New York, could say with just pride recalling these figures: "We may be proud of the sacrifices which we have made in behalf of our schools, especially under existing circumstances. What other nation, compelled to exert all its strength to defend its most sacred rights and its very existence, and to impose the heaviest taxes to maintain in the field a large army composed of all ranks in society,—what other nation has appropriated to educational purposes so large an amount of money amid so terrible trials? And what motive has induced us to make these sacrifices, but the conviction that the diffusion of intelligence is indispensable to the maintenance of free institutions, and that the education of all is the fundamental principle of that glorious constitution which the heroes of the revolution bequeathed to us? The people have understood that the surest way of securing the ultimate triumph of the cause to which they have pledged themselves with unanimous resolution and heroic courage, was to extend education still more widely, and to labor earnestly for its advancement." Brave words, noble confidence in the power of truth! The sword was not sufficient to subdue the slaveholders' rebellion, the book was needed; more than force must be employed: intelligence must be diffused, to eradicate iniquity from the land.

The money provided for public instruction comes from several different sources. There is, first, the school fund. The Americans have preserved that ancient tradition which considers a public charity, as an individual, needing for its maintenance an endowment, the income of which is expended for its support. Those benevolent institutions in Europe, hospitals and charitable boards, which date back to the middle ages, are generally maintained in this manner; thus also the established churches were formerly supported, and are still supported in those countries in which they yet exist. In America, instead of establishing a fund for the relief of the poor, a certain appropriation is made for the promotion of education, which prevents pauperism. A professorship is endowed in a college, rather than a bed in a hospital, and more bequests are made for the advancement of knowledge than for the distribution of alms.

The funds are furnished by an original endowment of the State, or by the sale of public lands. Congress, laying aside in this matter its habits of economy, has decided that one thirty-sixth of the lands shall be devoted to the school fund. In the Western States, where the surveyor can trace in the unbroken prairie those lines at right angles so dear to the logical

mind of the American, the township forms a square, thirty-six English miles in extent. This square is subdivided into thirty-six lots, of a mile each, and the central one, called the school section, is reserved to meet the expenses of education. As the population becomes more numerous, the lands increase in value. They are sold in their turn,* and the price received, often increased by the accumulation of interest, constitutes the school fund, which is, in course of time, still further augmented by donations, bequests, and endowments. Some statistics will give an idea of the value of this fund in the different States in 1863. In Massachusetts, it amounted to \$1,580,000; in New York, to \$2,800,000; in Ohio, to \$2,800,000; in Michigan to \$930,000; in Indiana, a state more recently settled, which has been able to profit largely by the sale of the public lands, to \$7,250,000; in Illinois, to \$5,000,000; in Wisconsin, to \$2,230,000, not including the value of lands yet remaining unsold; in California, to 6,622,200 acres of land.

The second source of school income is the appropriation made by all the States. The towns, on their part, are obliged to raise either an equal sum or one specified by law; but most of them far exceed the required amount. Thus in Massachusetts, to receive a part of the income of the school-fund, the towns must obtain by taxation the amount of a dollar and a half for every child of school age, that is from five to fifteen years. No town has fallen below the specified sum, and all but thirty-nine have raised two or three times as much as the required appropriation. Every State exerts itself to find means for the promotion of this important object. Thus in one we find a bank-tax specially appropriated to schools; in another, a tax upon rail roads; but the chief source of income is a direct tax upon property, levied by the ordinary collectors at the same time as the other taxes. The voters of the township themselves, assembled in a general yearly meeting, decide what amount they will raise, and it is a fact worthy of commendation that the tax-payers rarely think it too large. The more intelligent a nation is, the better it appreciates the advantages of education, and the more cheerfully it submits to the requisite sacrifices. An ignorant community will always think that the money spent for its instruction is a superfluous expense, and it is probable that in a village where no one could read or write, there would not be found a majority to vote the salary of a schoolmaster. Every one feels the wants of the body, but all do not experience those of the mind, because some cultivation is needed even to perceive one's deficiencies. Therefore the authority of government must

* Unfortunately these sales sometimes take place under unfavorable circumstances. Would it not be desirable that all the lands should not be alienated? The example of European endowments shows how the value of land increases, and this advance would be a hundred times more rapid in America. If our hospitals originally received their capital in money, their income would be hardly anything at the present time, and if the schools of America retained a part of theirs in land, it would triple itself every ten years at first, every twenty years subsequently.

give the first impulse to education in countries where the majority are ignorant. For want of such an impulse, the people would continue to live in ignorance as in their natural element.

If now we consider the system of education in the United States as a whole, we shall be impressed with its difference from the methods which prevail in Europe. Instead of masters grown old in the service, young girls from eighteen to twenty-five years almost everywhere,—the corps of teachers renewed on an average every five years,—instead of separate schools for the sexes, boys and girls together in the same classes,—no priestly influence, no action of the central government ;—as motive powers, only free discussion and the authority of public opinion,—the appropriations for education specially, directly, and freely voted by the very men who are to bear the burden of taxation,—the higher institutions of learning left to individual enterprise, elementary education, on the contrary, liberally provided for by the community,—religious instruction systematically excluded from the school,—these are the characteristics which distinguish the American system, and which are precisely the reverse of our educational institutions. Is there a country in Europe which could adopt this system with advantage? I doubt it; for schools would become entirely disorganized under this incessant change of teachers, if all the citizens did not appreciate their importance. But if the methods could not profitably be copied, the principle which lies at the foundation of all is worthy of universal adoption. From their origin the States of New England have considered the education of the people, as M. Durny* rightly insists, as a great public duty, as a debt due from the community to all its members. To instruct, to enlighten, has been the chief duty of government and its chief cause of expense. While other governments have lavished the millions obtained by taxation to create powerful fleets, maintain numerous armies or embellish capitals, they have reserved their money to build school-houses and pay teachers.

Centralization of power is everywhere opposed, and that form of administration termed self-government is continually demanded. In many countries doubtless, and especially in France, it is time to loosen the too narrow trammels which restrain the voluntary action of the people and make their movements dependent upon the single will of the sovereign; but let it be clearly understood, *decentralization* will produce great results and will lead to liberty, as the example of America shows, only when education shall be widely diffused, even to the lowest ranks of society. Formerly, war and conquest were the chief objects of the State, because they secured wealth and glory to the sovereign and nobles, who were of supreme importance. Now the chief object of the State is, or should be, to secure to all its citizens the full and free development of their faculties.

* Minister of Public Instruction in France.

The only means of securing this desideratum, together with freedom from all tutelage, is to found numerous schools and provide a thorough, attractive course of study, which shall be complete in its sphere. The United States have understood this more readily and clearly than any other nation. The Federal government, the States, the towns, and private citizens rival each other in zeal to advance the interests of education, and they shrink from no sacrifices. Hardly is a State founded, as Kansas or Oregon, hardly is a territory organized, as Dakota or Nebraska, before arrangements are made to multiply schools as fast as the population shall increase. The instruction of the people is a national work, in which every one aids, in which all are interested. This is the noble example presented to us by the American Union, which ought to awaken more and more the emulation of Europe.

THE SCEPTER OF KING SOLOMON.

*"Ferulaque tristes, sceptrâ pedagogorum
Cessent."*—(MART. EPIGR. x. 62.)

IN the Jewish, Arabian and Persian legends, much is said of the wonderful throne of King Solomon, or Suleiman, as the Arabians call him.

I wish to say a few words about the *scepter* of the same king, understanding by the word, the pedagogical scepter, the *rod*. I use the word *scepter* in the sense of *rod*, because in the Hebrew as well as in the Greek language, rod and scepter are represented by the same word, and because the two have, in more senses than one, an affinity for each other.

According to an article in the June number of the MONTHLY, the word *rod*, when used by Solomon, is to be taken in a purely figurative sense. From Philo down to our own times, there have been those who have explained the Bible in an allegorical way; while even those, who insist that every word is to be taken literally, must admit that the language of the Bible is often highly poetical, that is to say, metaphorical. We find, for example, the word *rod* unquestionably used in a figurative sense in Isaiah xi. 4: *And he shall smite the earth with the rod of his mouth*. Accordingly, as Hamlet says, "I will speak daggers, but use none," so we might say that Solomon will only speak rods, but use none. But let us first consider this scepter of Solomon. Was it a mild scepter? merely a symbol of power? Was it a real golden scepter without any alloy of iron? Did he, like that other descendant of Jesse, smite his subjects only "with the rod of his mouth?" Was it only figuratively that Adonia, Joab, and Simei were slain? (1 Kings ii. 25, 34, 46.) Did that grievous yoke, of which the people so bitterly complained, exist only in allegory? (ibid xii. 4) and

is that too to be taken allegorically, when his son says, *My father has chastised you with whips?* (ibid vs. 61.) It seems not; and if we must admit that the scepter of King Solomon was sometimes, at least, an iron scepter; that in spite of his name (which is of the same root as the Hebrew word for peace), he made use of the sword; we must also admit that in the rules for education—itsself a kind of reigning—Solomon would hesitatingly employ the rod in the literal sense of the word. We must admit that he means a real rod and a real punishment when he says (Prov. xxiii. 14), *Thou beatest him with the rod, but thou deliverest his soul from the Sheol (perdition);* or (xix. 18), *Chasten thy son while there is still hope, and do not take to heart his crying;* which may and has been explained, “Chasten thy son while there is still hope (to correct him), but do not wish to kill him.” Besides, in order successfully to investigate the true spirit of the book of Proverbs, it must be studied in connection with the other books of the Bible. If we refer to the five books of Moses, we shall there find on every page mention made of corporal punishments, and even of the penalty of death in various forms. Especially with regard to education, we find (Deut. xxi. 18) that a stubborn and rebellious son was to be “stoned with stones”—an expression that certainly can not be taken figuratively.

As a proof that the old Hebrews did not educate their children by words merely, we adduce as witness a single letter, the Greek *Lambda*. This *Lambda* is nothing else than the Hebrew and Phœnician letter *Lamed*, so called because its figure resembled that of a *goad* used in driving cattle. From the same root as *Lamed* are derived the Hebrew words for *exercise, accustom, learn, teach, etc.*; and hence in Isaiah xxix. 13, where the word is employed in the Hebrew text, the meaning seems to be “Their fear toward me is a precept of men inculcated by force.” Another proof that the old Hebrews did at times actually chastise their children, may be found in the passage, *As a man chasteneth his son, so the Lord thy God chasteneth thee* (Deut. viii. 5). According to this and another passage (Psalms cxix. 71), pain and suffering are not to be considered as evils but visitations,* and the parallel drawn between divine and paternal chastigation, shows that in like manner corporal punishment of a child is certainly not to be considered as *cruelty*, as is asserted in the article mentioned. The word used in the original of all these passages to express *chasten, chastise, chastisement, etc.* (*jassar*, in Hebrew), has various significations. Where, for instance, the translation uses the word *chastise*, as in the above mentioned passages, or *reprove* (Prov. ix. 7); or *instruct* (Job iv. 9, Psalms xvi. 7, Isaiah viii. 11), or *teach* (Prov. xxxi. 1), the Hebrew word

* It is highly characteristic, that at a later period (see Buxtorf Lex., p. 965), the usual word for bodily pain (*yissurim*) means properly chastisement, which implies that all pains and sufferings are sent as corrections by God.

is always the same (*jassar*). An analogy to this we find (as Geserius remarks in his *Thesaurus*, p. 604), in the German *ziehen*, to breed, to cultivate; *erziehen*, to bring up, to educate; *zucht*, discipline, correction; and *züchtigen*, to chastise, to scourge. All these words have the same root, only that *züchtigen*, as harder in itself, is a stronger term than *ziehen*. These examples sufficiently attest, that among the Hebrews as well as among the Teutonic nations, the idea of education is more or less connected with that of chastisement.

Had the original text of the above mentioned passages in proverbs employed merely the usual word for castigation (*jassar*), there might be some room for doubt as to the true meaning. But the author of the book uses the word for rod (*Schebeth*), and that he means a real rod, may be judged of from the fact that, in speaking of children, he always uses the same word, while in speaking of a horse (Prov. xxvi. 3), he uses the word for whip or scourge (Hebrew, *Schot*, which, by the way, still exists in the Spanish word *azote*, whip, formed from the Arabic *Saut* and the article).

The author of the article in review may be right, however, when he says that the application of the rod ought, according to Proverbs, to be restricted within narrow limits. It is said distinctly, *Foolishness is bound in the heart of the child, the rod of correction shall remove it from him* (Prov. xxii. 15). The rod is only for the fool, and a fool (*kesil*) in the Old Testament, means a person who deviates from the right path. Thus an old French Bible translates, "I erred not from thy precepts" (Psalms cxix. 10), by "*de tes commandemens non foliai*." A wicked person is a foolish one, an idea, which by the way, is also expressed in the Greek *ἄρην* (Hom. II. vi., 356). The rod is to be employed only in case of the fool, or, what is nearly the same, the serf, that is one who is a slave to his passions, a brutish person, or in case of those who will not be corrected by words (Prov. xxix. 19). But for one who is not a fool, words are to be used. *A reproof enters more into one who is sensible (mebin) than a hundred stripes into a fool* (Prov. xvii. 10): and, *the words of wise men are as goads* (Eccl. xii. 11), which, as in Eccl. ix. 17, certainly means that the wise man, one who knows how to train a child according to his disposition and turn of mind (Prov. xxii. 6), will use words which will have the same or even a better effect than the rod in the hands of others.

We may therefore say that the rod is to be used as "*ultima ratio*," when there is no other means of correction. If, however, we want a figurative passage, we might perhaps find it in the story of Moses (Numb. xx. 12, 24, xxxii. 14), who was punished for having smitten the rock with the rod instead of speaking to it, which would have been an example of forbearance and patience. This rod, according to an oriental legend, was taken from a tree in Paradise, and was not to be used to strike with.

Every one knows what Cervantes has said concerning translations, and

what the Italians in a shorter way express by their "Traduttore Traditore." Howsoever correct a translation may be, still an insight into the original will give a better understanding. There is no translation without also some *dislocation* of the original sense, in the case of entire sentences as well as in single words.

The modern languages express scepter and rod by two different words. The Hebrew *Schebeth*, however, and the Greek *Skeptron* (allied to *Schebeth*, and the Latin *Scipio*), signify in the primary sense a rod, in the secondary, a scepter. This at once shows us the difference between olden and modern times. We talk much and write still more; we use words and words only; the ancients did not talk so much and wrote even less; but they had another language, that of *symbols*. We read of the coronation of the Austrian emperor as king of Hungary, and all those ceremonies appear to us a vain and idle show; but in former times those symbols bore an obvious and striking import. And thus we find throughout all antiquity the rod an eloquent symbol, a necessary attribute. Shepherds bore a rod (Psalms xxiii. 4, Micah vii. 14), so also kings, the shepherds of nations—*ποιμένες λαῶν*—as Homer calls them, and it is certainly characteristic that the Romans of old used a spear instead of a scepter. The same seems also to have been a custom of Saul's (1 Sam. xviii. 10, xxii. 6). From this use of the rod, originated in all likelihood the crozier, the pastoral staff of the bishop.

The different Latin words *Baculus*, *lituus*, *pedum*, *Virga*, and the Greek *ράβδον*, *βάκτρον*, *σκήπτρον*, and their compounds, show that nearly every occupation had a certain rod as a distinguishing mark. As in many other instances where the words are still in use while the thing itself is obsolete, the German language has retained the expressions *Zauberstab*, magic wand; *Bettelstab*, *an den Bettelstab bringen*, to reduce to beggary; *Heroldstab*, herald's staff; *den Wanderstab ergreifen*, to take the staff for wandering; and, *den Stab über Etwas brechen*, to break the staff at something, an expression of utter condemnation, originating in the custom of breaking a staff when sentence of death was pronounced. Suppose now that the pedagogue, too, had a staff in his hand, as indeed the *Septuaginta* translates the passage (Judges v. 14), not "with the pen of the writer," but "with the rod of the scribe" (*ράβδῳ γραμματέως—δηγήσεως* seems to be a later emendation), he certainly must have used it sometimes, or else it would have been a mere sign without signification, and there is nothing more ridiculous than the symbol of power without the power itself.

It is not my intention to speak about corporal punishment; that is an independent subject. My purpose is merely to show that the author of the Proverbs speaks *not* in a figurative sense, and that just as we find corporal punishment in the laws of Menu and among other nations of old, so the old Hebrews did not abhor an occasional chastisement. Besides, we must not

forget that in those times it was only in exceptional cases that we find a man devoting himself to the life of a pedagogue, and have a special word for that occupation (as Numbers xi. 12, Jer. xl. 23, 2 Kings x. 15). Generally it was the father—this “*incorruptissimus custos*,” as Horace calls his own father (Sat. I., 6, 81)—who had the charge of the child, and it is to the father that Solomon addresses his words. Solomon, as a wise man, knew that a father would not readily go too far in whipping his child, and that he rather needs an admonition not to spare him, than an exhortation not to whip too hard.

In conclusion, I cannot refrain from another remark. There is, perhaps, no other country where we find so many biblical reminiscences, especially of the Old Testament, as in America. In no other country do there exist so many biblical names derived from the Old Testament, and no other literature abounds in so many biblical expressions and allusions. People in this country are indeed what the Germans call “*bibelfest*,” and the above mentioned article is an instance of this. One may read the whole of Locke’s “Thoughts concerning Education,” or of Rousseau’s “*Emile*,” or the book “*Dell’Educazione*,” of the renowned Italian author Tommaseo, or any of the German books on education, without finding a single biblical passage quoted. But as the old Hebrews certainly did much in the cause of education, since the instruction of the children forms part of the law, and as a pedagogical idea pervades the whole of the Bible, this book may, in some parts, be considered a kind of *pædagogopædie*, instructing us how to educate. We must take care, however, always to elicit the right meaning, and to find in those passages nothing but what is really contained in them, else we risk being reckoned among those concerning whom Göthe says—

“*Legt ihrs nicht aus, so legt ihr’s unter.*”

INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION.—No boy should be allowed to grow up to manhood, and no girl to womanhood, without having become skilled in some department of manual labor. No matter how rich or poor, no matter how learned or how ignorant, every one should know how to earn a subsistence by *bona fide* hard work. Your lawyer, doctor, clergyman, heiress, teacher, actress, may live to see the day when he or she will not be wanted in his or her chosen vocation, yet be in urgent need of board and clothes. Such cases are constantly occurring. Most of those who plead for something to do, know not how to do anything that others want. “I am willing to do anything,” they say; but they really know how to do nothing. It is a crime to rear a child to such helplessness, though he were to inherit the wealth of Croesus.

GRAMMATICAL NOTES.

III.—THE POSSESSIVE CASE OF NOUNS.

THERE is, to say the least, much want of simplicity in English Grammars, in stating how the possessive case of nouns should be written. We are told, perhaps, 1st, "The possessive singular is formed by annexing an apostrophe and the letter *s* to the nominative;" 2d, "The possessive plural is formed by annexing an apostrophe and *s* to the nominative plural, unless it already ends in *s*, in which case the apostrophe only is annexed;" 3d, "Nouns ending in the sound of *s* usually form their possessive case by annexing an apostrophe only, especially if the next word commences with an *s* sound." Now this is exceedingly confusing, in a great measure incorrect, and altogether unsatisfactory. Some fifteen years ago we adopted a simple rule, which we have since stated at two or three different Teachers' Conventions, and in the class-room again and again. We have tested it by comparing it with the practice of standard writers, and have seen, as yet, no good reason for changing it. It is applicable as well to the plural as to the singular, to nouns ending in *s* as to nouns not ending in *s*. It is this:—Annex to the nominative an apostrophe,* *always*; then, if, in pronouncing the possessive, you give to the word the sound of a final *s* or *z* not heard in pronouncing the nominative, annex an *s*; if not, do not.

EXAMPLES.

1. Apostrophe and *s* annexed.

The *man's* hat,
Men's shoes,
 For *truth's* sake,
 The *schoolmistress's* story,
 An *Esquimaux's* hut,
 Our *corps's* [sing.] commander,
Langlois's experience,
 To *Douglas's* obscure abode,
 And in *Melrose's* holy pile,

2. Apostrophe only annexed.

The *boys'* hats;
Archimedes' screw;
 For *conscience's* sake;
 In his *highness'* favor;
 The *Esquimaux'* habits;
 The ten *corps'* [pl.] commanders fell;
 The power of *Jesus'* name;
 They shout the *Douglas'* name;
 Sought *Melrose'* holy shrine.

The law for the possessive case, whether singular or plural, is one. It should be written as pronounced. This is almost invariably done with reference to the plural,† for the simple reason that the nominative gene-

* This rule, be it observed, is for *nouns*, not for personal pronouns, which should never be written with an apostrophe,—*hers, its, ours, yours, theirs*, being the true form for these words.

† There is a misspelling of the possessive plural which does not affect its pronunciation, but which is palpable enough to the eye. It occurs continually among writers of all grades. The following are instances of it. "Controversy is not seldom excited in

rally ends with the sound of *s*; and as an additional *s* is not heard in pronouncing the possessive, an additional *s* is not appended after the apostrophe. Where this sound, however, is heard, as in *children's*, *cherubim's*, *geni's*, *sons-in-law's*, the *s* is annexed, just as in the singular.

Some may be disposed to say, If the last four of the above examples are correct, then we can pronounce and write the possessive as we please, either with or without the apostrophe. It may, at first glance, seem so; but if the reader will follow us patiently through, we will endeavor to show that, in this apparent irregularity, there is, notwithstanding, a conformity to law and usage, as well as a certain usage to which we are to conform.

If Sir Walter Scott, or any other poet, for the metre's sake, says, in one place, "the *Douglas'* name," (and "the law allows it,") and in another, "the *Douglas's* command," does it therefore follow that you or I, in unambitious prose, may, at our pleasure, write, on one page, "*Willis's* Poems" or "*conscience'* sake," and on the next, contrary to established usage, "*Willis'* Poems" or "*conscience's* sake?" This would argue either our ignorance of the true pronunciation of these words, or our indifference to, perhaps contempt of, general usage. The laws of poetical composition in all languages allow certain licences which are not tolerated in prose. It is only by one of these licences that the poet is allowed to clip the pronunciation of *Douglas's* and *Melrose's* to *Douglas'* and *Melrose'*, and even to transfer the accent in the latter from the second syllable to the first.

The only real difficulty seems to be in regard to nouns ending with an *s* sound. If they are to be written as pronounced, when shall we pronounce them with an additional *s*, and when not? We will endeavor, if possible, to clear up the matter somewhat, if not altogether.

1. When a proper (or any other) noun is prefixed, as a designating term not implying possession and without any change of pronunciation, to another noun, it should not be written with the sign of the possessive. It is not a noun in the possessive case at all, but an adjective. Examples:—*Phillips Academy*, *Rutgers College*, *Adams Express Co.*, *James Street*, *Coenties Slip*. There is no reason why these, and such as these, should have the sign of the possessive any more than the leading word of any of the following expressions:—*Yale College*, *Manhattan Life Ins. Co.*, *Hudson River*, *Clinton Place*, *Peck Slip*, *Catharine Ferry*; much less that that sign should be improperly used, as we have seen it used, and that, too, by "respectable people," thus; *Phillips' Academy*, *Rutger's College*, *James' Slip*, etc. Under this head come such expressions as "*Mars Hill*," "The

consequence of the *disputants* attaching each a different meaning to the same word."—*Coleridge*. "In most cases, the people who talk about a man's *writings* being light know nothing about severe thinking."—*A. K. H. Boyd*. *Disputants* and *writings* should have been *disputants'* and *writings'*—i. e. with the apostrophe.

Times Office," "The *Collins Steamers*," "Savings Bank," "Dobbs Ferry." Lippincott's *Gaz.* has it *Dobb's*, and Lossing, *Dobbs's*!

2. Proper nouns ending with the sound of sharp *s*, as *Brooks*, *Cox*, *Norris*, *Potts*, *Prentice*, *Tantalus*, *Titus*, should, as a general rule, have their possessives sounded and written with an additional *s*. "*Voas's* hobby-horse."—*Bancroft*. "*St. Vitus's* dance."—*J. E. Worcester*. "*Phillips's* dictionary."—*Do*. "*Mr. Burgess's* discovery."—*H. Tooke*. "*Tantalus's* kingdom."—*Pope*. "*Wilkes's* liberation."—*N. A. Rev.* "*Horace's* canon."—*Disraeli*. "*Dr. Watts's* sermons."—*Southey*. "*Clarence's* Plantagenet."—*Scott*. "*King Bagdegamus's* party."—*Bulfinch*. "*Sir Lewis's* Swiss porter."—*Macaulay*. "*St. Dennis's*."—*Do*. "*Erasmus's* dialogues."—*Do*. "*Ellis's* reprint."—*G. P. Marsh*. "*Dyce's* edition."—*Do*. "*Wilks's* Scripture pieces."—*Cheever*. "*Brooks's* integrity."—*E. Everett*. "*Douglas's* original poetry."—*Hallam*. The word *Jesus*, however, is an exception to this rule. The form for the possessive of this word, as established by custom, is *Jesus's*;—not *Jesu's*, (pronounced as we have sometimes heard it from the pulpit, *Je-zhooz*,) nor yet *Jesus's*. This last form may possibly be tolerated, but barely tolerated, in verse. It was thus Charles Wesley wrote, "When my heart first believed, what a joy I received,—what a heaven in *Jesus's* name." In poetry we may expect to find, "*A Titus's* noble charities." "*Aurelius's* countenance," "*Cocytus's* brink," "*Phæbus's* steeds," "*At Ajax's* bosom," "*Bacchus's* blessings." The additional *s* is omitted here, not to avoid the recurrence of unpleasant sounds, as we are sometimes told, but to fit the syllables to the procrustean bed of verse. The recurrence of *s* sounds in these cases is really no objection; for numberless instances of harsher combinations than any of these possessive forms with the additional *s*, occur all through the language, and are used without the slightest objection. Nay; we hold that, with all its *s's*, the expression "*Sir Lewis's* Swiss porter," or "*Keats's* St. Agnes' Eve," is positively more easily pronounced and more melodious than "*Sir Lewis's* Swiss porter," or "*Keats's* St. Agnes' Eve," properly pronounced, would be. The same is true of "*Phæbus's* steeds" as compared with *Pope's* "*Phæbus's* steeds," and of other examples innumerable. A way, then, with this paltry, meaningless objection!

3. Surnames like *Adams*, *Johns*, *Peters*, *Richards*, *Williams*, should receive the additional *s* in pronouncing as well as in writing their possessive, if for no other reason, to distinguish it from the possessive of the corresponding Christian name, *Adam*, *John*, etc. The only seemingly plausible, though not real, objection that we can conceive of being urged against this, is the unusualness of some of these forms. Here, we have no doubt, is just where all the trouble lies. While *Adams's* and *Williams's*, and others of them are familiar enough to the eye and the ear, some that are less frequently met with, we admit, "seem odd" if written and pro-

nounced as we believe they should be. Take "*Samuel's Ornithology*." It was only a day or two ago that we met this in the *Nation* of August 3th. And though unusual, we think it right, and to be pronounced *sam-u-elz-ez*.

4. In fact, perhaps most proper names ending in *s*, even when that letter has the sound of *z*, should receive an additional *s* in pronouncing as well as in writing.—"*Bays's* monster beast."—Pope. "*Style's* Register."—Macaulay. "*Mrs. Siddons's* Milton."—Do. "*Collins's* Odes."—Southey. "*Edwards's* Works."—Channing. "*Dickens's* Works."—*Day's Punctuation*. "*Mrs. Hemans's* poetry."—*N. A. Rev.* "*Dr. Hawes's* church."—*H. Barnard*. "*King James's* translation."—*G. P. Marsh*. "*Charles's* affairs."—Prescott. "*Stephens's* Incidents of Travel."—*N. A. Rev.* "*Sands's* writings."—*R. W. Griswold*. "*Wells's* Grammar."—*G. Brown*. "*Ticknor and Fields's* latest publications."—*T. and F.'s Adv't*. The Appleton's publish *Hows' Readers*, as the books themselves say on the back. But with all deference we would submit whether *Hows's* would not be the true form for the possessive case of this name, leaving *Howe's* in undisputed possession of its own pronunciation as well as orthography. *Hows's* is certainly no harder to pronounce and no harsher to the ear than *houses*. Besides, it speaks the truth, while the pronunciation of *Hows'* carries a wrong impression. It naturally calls up *Howe's*, which *Hows's* can not do.

5. From the above class we unhesitatingly except, and write without an additional *s* in the possessive, all names ending in *rs*, as *Ayres's*, *Beers's*, *Manners's*, *Waters's*, *Withers's*; also names ending with an unaccented syllable terminating in the sound of *ir* or *ez*, as *Humphreys's*, *Moses's*, *Jabez's*, *Hedges's*; also names ending with an unaccented syllable terminating in the sound of *eez*, as *Davies's*, *Socrates's*, *Achilles's*. This we do on the score of euphony, sustained as it is by usage. "*Lord Berners's* Froissart."—*G. P. Marsh*. "*Moses's* minister."—*Josh. i. 1*. "*Dr. Chalmers's* knowledge."—*C. Knight*. "*Mithridates's* flatterers."—Do. "*Alcides's* club."—*Lamb*. "*Archimedes's* screw."—*J. E. Worcester*. The repetition of two similar unaccented syllables in succession is harsh, and our best speakers and writers, if they can, generally avoid it.

6. We should also write without the additional *s*,

a. All common nouns ending in unaccented *ance* or *ence*, followed by a word beginning with *s*; as, *acquaintance's*, *temperance's*, *conscience's*, *science's*. This is the form established by usage. "*Alliance's* sake."—*Shak*. "*Science's* self."—*Byron*. "*For convenience's* sake."—*Max Muller*. Followed by other words, they take the *s*. "*Your reverence's* mule."—*Ivanhoe*. Proper names in these terminations follow the general rule; *Adriance's*, *Severance's*, *Clarence's*, *Terence's*, etc.

b. All common nouns in unaccented *ess*, that have no plural; as, *good-*

ness', holiness', prowess'. Nouns having a plural readily and usually admit the additional *s*; (though sometimes, for the measure's sake, it is omitted in poetry;) as, *mistress's, princess's, witness's.*

We conclude with giving a few examples of possessives improperly written. 1. "As regards *others's* opinions."—*Century.* 2. "*Ladies's* bonnets."—*Balch's Lect.* 3. "Who thirst for *scribbling's* sake."—*Pope.* 4. "For *distinction's* sake."—*Anthon.* 5. "For *independence's* sake."—*F. A. March.* 6. "For truth's sake and his *conscience.*"—*Shak.* This needs the apostrophe,—*conscience'.* 7. "For *knowledge's* sake."—*Hooker.* 8. "For *tens's* sake."—*Lennie.* Say, "for ten's sake." 9. "For *peace* and quiet's sake."—*Cowper, as published by C. Wells, 1835.* "For *peace* and *quiet's* sake."—*Cowper, as published by Appleton, 1859.* The omission of the *s* from *peace*, is an allowable poetic licence; but the omission of the [*'*] from that word is an error, as is also the omission of *s* from *quiet's* in the last instance. 10. "Next came the *ladies* turn."—*N. Y. Daily.* 11. "*Sheeps's* wool."—*Lippincott's Gaz.* Brown says the possessive plural of *sheep* should be written *sheeps's*, to distinguish it from the possessive singular. Kerl remarks, "This is a questionable rule." It is more. It is contrary to all analogy, unnecessary, and most vicious. 12. "St. *James's* coffee-house."—*Disraeli.* 13. "*Davies's* Algebra." 14. "*Socrates's* life."—*Lennie.* 15. "*Verres's* trial."—*Macaulay.* 16. "Mr. *Harris's* services." 17. "In *Felix's* room." 18. "The sound of *horses* feet." 19. "*Holme's* Am. Annals." The nominative here is *Holmes*, not *Holme*. The possessive should therefore be *Holmes's*. 20. "*Descartes's* views." This requires the additional *s*, the nominative (*Descartes*) being pronounced *de-kart*. 21. "*Ladie's* Room."—*R. R. Depot, Jamaica, L. I.*

JOHN BOYD.

CHAPTER XXI.

ON the Monday morning after the Professor's Comfort lecture, the *Wye Morning News Letter* contained the following paragraph:

"Professor Beelen lectured at Comfort last Friday evening before a crowded and intelligent audience, which manifested their interest by giving to the learned lecturer the profoundest attention. The popularity of the Professor as a lecturer is, we are informed, bringing upon him a pressure of invitations, thus multiplying his engagements to such an extent as to render it extremely difficult for him to fulfill them. This state of things renders it, no doubt, desirable that applications for his services as a lecturer should be made without delay."

The impudent vitality denoted to the initiated by this newspaper para-

graph produced upon them rather a ludicrous effect. The paragraph would deceive many unsophisticated readers, who would regard it as purely editorial, and as indicating the importance of the Professor. While the initiated chafed at this reflection, they disdained to do more than laugh over the statement. The man who has a constituency is strong, even though the constituency consist of the unsophisticated. With a sense of the strength gathered to him by his newspaper statement, the Professor entered school again. He was wont to compare himself to the moon that sailed tranquil in the heavens above the dogs that barked at it ; and doubtless it was upon this principle that he determined still to act. Yet for all his strength, and for all his tranquil indifference, his look of suspicious alertness had become intensified ; and a hard look darkened the expression of benignity which, according to custom, he assumed, when presently he stood at his desk before his assembled pupils. He detained them awhile after the opening religious exercises to tell them about his lecturing experiences at Comfort. It was a means of advertising himself which he was not likely to neglect. Self-complacent and undulatory in tone, he indicated with great clearness and accuracy the remarkable success which had attended his efforts, and finally drew the moral that if they would only give close attention to their studies, some of the pupils might eventually, perhaps, rise also to distinction in the higher walks of literary life. The disgust and uneasiness with which the school sat under these remarks had no effect upon the Professor's paternal complacency while delivering them. Elsewhere he assumed the *role* of the charitable Christian. Charity became the burden of his prayers and exhortations. If a brother was charged with a fault, he would strive to allay the bitterness of feeling against him. A prominent politician was decried for some act of immorality, and he found in the Professor an indefatigable defender, going about palliating the fault, or explaining it away. And all the while he would manage to drop softly, here and there, poisonous words concerning his own personal enemies, and he would show how the justice which had been wrought upon Miss Woodstock must needs fall ultimately upon all who would array themselves against the Christian.

Meanwhile Boyd had become thoroughly repellant to all demonstrations of a social kind coming from the Professor, never seeming to notice him excepting when the of the school required it. When the warm weather came on, John would go occasionally to the neighboring beach with parties of boys. One day Beelen, inviting himself, joined them. While Boyd was walking on the sand, Beelen approached and took his arm in a sociable way ; nor did he withdraw his arm, though Boyd by not locking it, failed to encourage him. The Professor held on, and opened with a glowing appeal to his companion to look upon the sea and to admire it in its grandeur.

"Excuse me," said John, "there are some of my boys awaiting me. I must join them." "Ah—yes—well," ejaculated the Professor, clinging to Boyd. "I wished to say something confidentially, if you could spare a few minutes. Shall we go to those rocks where we may be alone?" "No, I think not," said John, looking at the huge pile of rocks indicated, "I fear we should be rather too lonely." "O, I guess not. We can have a good bath together there without fear of interruption; and I can tell you what I wish to." "Perhaps," said Boyd, "if we should go to bathe so far away from the rest, the undertow or something else might be the death of one of us, and then the competition for the principalship of the Institute and the Saturday School would be brought to too sudden an end—a melancholy result, you know, that is by no means to be invited." Beelen lifted back momentarily with a glare, but he at once recovered his smoothness of manner. Boyd had withdrawn and was confronting him.

"I have been talking with Tilden Boyd," said Beelen, with a slightly sinister pucker. John tarried to listen. "I have been talking with him confidentially," said the Professor, "he has told me of that affair of yours." Beelen waited, and John eyed him. "I told him," continued Beelen, "that I did not see that you were blame-worthy. You simply invested Miss Pragge's money, by her own request, in the manner which seemed to you best. You only committed a mistake, I told him, such as any one was liable to commit. You, nor any one could ever have foreseen the failure of the company. You acted honorably. You have, I fear, been over sensitive lest dishonorable motives might be imputed to you. I can, I think, judge of your feelings from my own under similar circumstances. Our temperaments, I think, are much alike. I have defended you—I have defended you to the last." "The affair needs no defending, and when it does I will hire one of my own selection to it do." John was turning away again. "As to the matter of the will," continued Beelen, and John lingered,—"I—I told your cousin that I thought the Welford Boyd property belonged by good rights to you, and that the story of the drawing of another and a later will must be true; that if he had purchased your old homestead with the money he would most probably have to quit it, for the later will would most surely turn up—." "Humph!" Boyd ejaculated, and he turned and walked away, leaving Beelen alone on the beach. John, indeed, desired to be alone awhile. He stood and looked out upon the sea. "What if it be true," he thought. The bare possibility of his repossessing the old homestead suggested itself. He stood and looked and thought. The boys were having a fine time on the sand. Their shouts, however, hardly rose above the roar of the waves. He felt like joining them, but his reverie held him. His mind began to reason out the case. This uncle of his, Welford Boyd, had always regarded him with special kindness until Tilden came to him. That was a shrewd play of Tilden's to get the money by

conciliating the old man to himself, and alienating him to his favorite nephew. Tilden was poor. It was a way for him to get rich. An easy way. That explained why Welford Boyd had turned cool. John could not understand it before. Yes, that was the explanation. John had taken no pains to reconcile his uncle. He had discontinued his visits upon the discovery of the coolness. One day, however, not long before the uncle's death, John had chanced to meet him, and at that interview the old preference for John had plainly manifested itself. Then came a paralytic stroke which prostrated the uncle, and he sent for John. When the latter arrived there were present in the room Tilden Boyd and Pragge. These two withdrew from the bedside to a corner, and Welford Boyd took John's hand and glanced uneasily at the others. "What can I do for you?" whispered John in his ear, for a burden seemed to be resting upon his uncle's mind. The latter could not speak, but he turned his eyes to a little closet that was set high in the opposite wall. He glanced from the closet to John and back again until John looked thither; and then Welford Boyd's eyes grew dim. He was dead. Now what was in that closet? The new and last will?

CHAPTER XXII.

It was clear from Tilden's manner that if such a will had been made, he had not possessed himself of it. John determined to look for it upon the first opportunity. On the following Friday he took the cars for Barbridge where his uncle had lived. He would first of all look for it in the closet. Ever since his uncle's death the house had been untenanted. The key had been entrusted to a neighbor, from whom Boyd readily got it; and he borrowed a candle and proceeded at once to the house. The sun had set a half hour, and the twilight was fading. The old house, long unpainted, presently stood before him, dark and uninviting. The neglected garden was rank with weeds. Just as his hand touched the gate, a clump of shrubbery, that stood by the corner of the house, was shaken, and something sprang from it and darted round the corner out of sight. The thing was white whatever it was, so that he discerned it the more clearly. But the movement was so sudden that he got but a glimpse of the object. He opened the gate and went in. He walked up the path and around the house, but there were visible no signs of the presence of any one. Reaching the door he unlocked it and stepped in, and lighted the candle. Then he closed and locked the door. The house evidently had not been opened for a long while. The air was damp and stagnant; and that peculiar odor which belongs to old houses was strangely palpable. As he was ascending the staircase a sound fell on his ear, from what direction he could not tell, but certainly from somewhere within the house. He

stopped to listen. The stillness was so profound that he began to think he had been deceived. He hardly permitted himself to associate the sound fancied or otherwise with what he had seen outside. He was bent upon the accomplishment of his errand ; but he stepped more slowly when he went on. The noise had seemed like that of one moving quickly but softly out of a room. It was a slight rushing sound. It might have been the wind rising among the trees about the house. With that reflection he again dismissed the thought of it from his mind.

The door of his uncle's chamber was ajar. He pushed it open and entered. The bed was made up, and was just as it had been left after the funeral. A door at the side of the room leading to another chamber was wide open. Access in that direction was had to the back part of the house. The windows and blinds were closed. The circumstances and associations of the place were depressing. Putting the candle on a table, he stepped upon a chair and pulled open the door of the closet. Instinctively he slammed it to again, and jumped to the floor and stared around him and then up at the closet door. But that was only for an instant. Immediately he stepped into the chair again and pulled open the door and looked in. A fading phosphorescent light revealed itself from the wall in the depth of the closet, assuming the shape of a grinning skull. "That was done by human fingers," he thought, "and but just now. There's some one in the house." At that instant something rushed through the room—something white ; he caught a glimpse of it as it flitted through the door leading to the next chamber. "Now that is neither ghost nor devil," he thought as he stood on the chair looking in the direction whither the thing had disappeared. "Being visible, it is flesh and blood." He turned and ransacked the closet hastily. There was considerable rubbish in it, old books and newspapers, bottles and manuscripts. He must examine thoroughly. He removed all the bottles first and held them to the caudle to see whether they contained anything. Each and all were empty. Then he looked through the leaves of all the books, and finally he came to the manuscripts. These were the most likely to contain the thing he sought. He went to the chamber door and drew it to, and just then a loud, vacant, horrible laugh resounded through the house. "Human lungs," he muttered. "This is the nineteenth century, and I hope I'm of it. Nothing worse than a tussle, perhaps, unless it be a bullet. But that's not likely. No sufficient motive. No? Tilden?—His point would hardly be to prevent my getting the will, but to get it himself. Perhaps he thought of the closet at the same time—by Prague's suggestion, it may be. I'll keep the doors closed." He rose and closed to the door that led to the hall. He had no sooner taken his seat when the door was flung wide open again. He started to his feet. Standing motionless in the doorway was a figure clad in white. "Prague!" John

ejaculated. At once the figure stepped one side and Tilden Boyd walked into the room. And yet it could hardly be said that he walked. His posture and gait would have reminded one rather of the act of creeping. His face was white and distorted, and he rubbed his hands as he approached to where John stood. "I have come to look for the will," he chattered. "Yes, I would have justice done. Let's look these over—look these over together. Ha, ha, it's strange, isn't it, we should have hit upon it at once. These are the papers? I've brought a candle, too. Pragge, bring the candle, won't you?" All the while he kept his eyes turned up under their brows toward John, as though he feared that to remove them would be to lose some advantage. And meanwhile John continued his search among the manuscripts. Pragge fittied in with a candle after the traditional ghostly way, and then retired to the bed, in the middle of which with a leap he settled himself, and glowered at the two will-seekers. "You tried my nerves somewhat," said John, honestly, "but you did not succeed in frightening me away." "Ha, ha—he—e," chattered Tilden, with ghostly jollity, "we didn't want to frighten you away, did we, Pragge? We are glad of your assistance." "Very much obliged to you for your appreciation of my services," replied John, "you'll find them valuable, for I shall hunt with inexorable tenacity." Hereupon he drew a larger manuscript from the file. Tilden made a sudden movement of his hand as though to clutch it. John drew it away, eyed him, and then proceeded to look at the manuscript. He had examined everything thoroughly but this. Tilden kept his eyes still turned to him from under his brows, while John read. Presently John folded up the manuscript, and was putting it in his side coat pocket when Tilden on a sudden clutched at it. His face was ghastly white, and so distorted that he showed his teeth. John strove to push him away, but with this horrible expression he held on. Pragge stood up on the bed. Tilden seized a chair. It was a threatening movement. John caught the chair, and in the struggle the table was upset and the candles were put out. "Come," was whispered in John's ear. The voice had a friendly sound, and he allowed himself to be thrust from the room and accompanied to the door. "Pragge," said he, there, "I could have taken care of myself,—but this convinces me that you are friendly." "I would not be hung," was the cold reply.

THE common school is that means which enables men to be educated, which unseals their eyes, and opens their faculties, and gives them the liberty to think and to acquire. To read and write is not much; a pair of eyes is not much; but the amount of a man's seeing is a great deal in his lifetime; and the intelligence which is gathered by reading and writing is immeasurable.—*Beecher.*

THE MONTHLY.—OCTOBER.

REUNION.

VARIETY is certainly one of the prime sources of human delight.

The seasons in their order pass and repass over the sympathizing surface of the globe, and we, its tenants, honor each in its due rotation. We reflect with pleasure, in the icy Winter, on the coming flowers of the Summer, and, whilst gathering the golden harvests of Autumn, long for the bracing airs and cool green glories of the Spring.

In like manner pass the ever-varying changes in the periods of our lives. The joys of infancy yield to the sports of youth ; these are absorbed in the toils of manhood, destined to be superseded by the sober reflections of age. But there are wheels within wheels, and even these changes have also their variations. The toils of manhood need the relaxations of rest and of recreation ; and a renewed association with the delights of infancy is not unfrequently resorted to as a pastime and solace by declining age. But pleasure soon cloy, and is rarely or never found totally unalloyed with sorrow ; whilst toil, when freely accepted and rightly honored in its performance, is not unfrequently found to be the true zest of life, the supreme charm of existence.

So Hail ! once more to the familiar path, the play grounds and the school house. Hail to the well-known hall, the reception room, the chair of office, and the old familiar desk. Hurrah ! for the map-stand, the black-board and the sacred pianoforte. Welcome ! to the cheerful salutation of the janitor, and the steady clang of the old morning bell ; to the oft heard pattering of little feet and the music of cheerful voices gathering volume with each fresh arrival. Thrice welcome to the dear familiar faces as they throng around, with their hearty congratulations depicted in truthful characters in their sparkling eyes and pouring forth in chorus from their ruby lips. Farewell ! to the past glories of the sea side, the mountain, the sports of the field, the mazy dance and the empty follies of fashion. No scene more beautiful can be witnessed, and no pleasure more innocent, unalloyed and enduring, can be participated in, than those enjoy who behold and can truly appreciate the happiness of childhood and youth.

CHARACTERISTICS OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS.

A RECENT English Report on *Education in America*, sums up in the following paragraph the general results of our Public School System. In spite of its ambitious style, the estimate is instructive. Could we curb somewhat our "precipitancy," and allay "the excessive and exhausting strain on the mental and physical powers," justly charged against us, and especially characteristic of our scholastic habits, the result would be vastly to our advantage. At present our education partakes too much of violent accretion, too little of quiet growth and harmonious development; we acquire knowledge, rather than wisdom:—but let us hope that by and by we may have time to go slower. We quote:

"In endeavoring to comprehend and appreciate the system of common or public schools—for the two epithets are used indifferently—it is absolutely necessary that the European observer should throw his mind, if possible, into the conditions of American life, should take his point of departure from a few leading social principles, and keep constantly before his eye certain salient social phenomena, which have, so to speak, necessitated its form, give to it its significance, underlie its action, maintain its motive power, determine its methods, and fix its aims. The principles have been already referred to—they are the principles of perfect social equality and absolute religious freedom. The phenomena are the restlessness and activity of the American character, without, perhaps, the culture and refinement of the old Athenian, but with all its versatility, the absorbing interest of political life, the constantly rising aims of each individual, the ebb and flow of commercial enterprise, and the immense development of the spirit of speculation; the intense energy of the national temperament, its rapidity of movement, its precipitancy, its impatience of standing still. Many an American in the course of active life will have turned his life to half a dozen different professions or ways of getting a livelihood. 'The one lesson we are taught all through life,' a person one day humorously said to me, 'is to be discontented with our station.' And it is this temper more than any other, intensified by the opportunities that the country affords and the prizes that it holds out to enterprise and ability, which is the motive power that sustains the schools. Corresponding, therefore, with these ideas, and reflecting these phenomena, must be the popular system of education. And the correspondence is marvellously exact, the reflection wonderfully true. The American school is a microcosm of American life. There reigns in it the same spirit of freedom and equality, the same rapidity of movement, scarce leaving time for work to be thoroughly well done; the same desire of progress, eagerly catching at every new idea, ever on the look out for improvements: the same appeals to ambition, the same sensitiveness to praise and blame, the subordination of the individual to the nation, the same prominence given to pursuits of a refining aim, the same excessive and exhausting strain on the mental and physical powers, the same feverishness and absence of repose; elements of

strength and weakness, of success and failure, mingled together in proportions which made it almost impossible to find any one discriminating epithet by which to characterize the resultant whole."

BOOK-KEEPING VERSUS SEWING.

SO many boys leave school each year to enter upon employments in which more or less of bookkeeping is required, and in which their prospects of promotion depend, in a measure, upon their skill in this art, that the popular will demands that in the public schools an exception shall be made in its favor. It is first dignified by the title "Science of Accounts," it is true, but it is none the less a mechanic art, as much as shoemaking is. We do not complain of this. The public has the right to grant the privileges of the public school as it pleases. But why should one trade, and that by no means of the highest importance or value to the State, be fostered to the exclusion of others? Grant that a knowledge of accounts may be of use to every man; that it is, therefore, a public want, and so the schools may justly be required to impart it; but is the skill of the accountant of greater public benefit, or more worthy of public encouragement, than the skill of the seamstress? At any rate, while we are liberal in fitting the boy to perform well what may be thought a necessary part of his coming duties, would it not be quite as much a public good, to say nothing of the humanity of it, to do the same for his sister who may be equally dependent upon herself for a livelihood? We think it would, and are happy to know that in one State, at least, popular opinion is beginning to recognize that girls are as much in need of "practical" instruction as boys are. In their last report, the School Committee of Providence, R. I., state that instruction in sewing has been given in five intermediate schools; and two hundred and twenty-five children, from ten to fifteen years of age, have taken their first lessons in the use of the needle. "The time devoted to these lessons is limited, yet it breaks the monotony of the daily routine, and will enable many to be more useful and happy in life." Not more than half the girls who were anxious to enter the sewing classes could be received. Many of these girls, says the Superintendent, are orphans, "and some more unfortunate than orphans, without any opportunity for fitting themselves to perform those needful duties by which they may gain a decent and respectable livelihood." The

same desire for instruction in needle-work is felt in every community ; and, to our mind, the good that would be effected by imparting it in the public schools, would surely be as great, and as widely felt, as that attending upon the instruction now given in bookkeeping. Thanks are due to the School Committee of Providence for setting a good example.

INTELLIGENCE—EDUCATIONAL AND OTHERWISE.

THE July issue of *The Museum and English Journal of Education* (London) gives a number of items in regard to Education in this country, which we presume will be news to most of our readers.

The first, headed "*Minister of Public Instruction*," needs no comment. It says : " At the head of this newly created Department has been placed Henry Barnard, long director of the Rhode Island Schools, which have been accepted throughout the States as a model, and more recently Director of the Connecticut Schools, in managing which he was equally successful. For a quarter of a century he has, both as a writer and an organizer, occupied the foremost rank as an Educationist. In particular he is regarded as the founder in the United States of primary and middle-class normal schools, and the author of most of the improvements introduced into schools where boys and girls are taught together."

The next item—" *New York State Schools*," contains statistics, evidently based upon the last report of our State Superintendent, for the figures agree, in the main, with those of Mr. Rice. The application of the figures however is sometimes quite original. For example, the Superintendent reports 36,465 pupils attending the academies of the State, and 1541 college students. *The Museum* assigns the first number to *Commercial Schools*, and the second, to *Grammar Schools*. Is this a gentle hint from our worthy cousins, that, compared with English Colleges, our Union, and Columbia, and other colleges, are to be ranked only as "*Grammar Schools*?"

But the most interesting paragraph is that in which the readers of *The Museum* are informed of "Mr. Peabody's gift of 2,100,000 dollars in paper money, for the establishment of Schools in the *State of New York*, that shall be open to all without distinction of race or color, etc., etc."

We trust that the proper authorities will investigate this matter, and see to it that our State schools receive the full benefit of this "much needed assistance." There is more of this sort of "intelligence" in the *Museum*, but we will leave it there.

EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

UNITED STATES.—The third official circular from the National Department of Education contains a letter to Governors calling for data to enable the Commissioner to report, as required by act of Congress, the condition of the several grants of land made for the promotion of education, and the manner in which these trusts have been managed. To indicate the nature of the statistics the department desires to receive, the Commissioner gives a history of the growth of the public sentiment which led Congress to inaugurate this plan of promoting education; and also a detailed account of the disposition of the land grants in Minnesota.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.—Those who hold that, as a nation, we have made no progress during the past few years, will find food for thought in the last report of the Board of Trustees of the Schools of Washington. It is encouraging to hear the key-note of our educational system so bravely sounded from our capitol city, where so short a time ago the slave-pen and the auction-block were deemed essential elements of a Christian civilization, and the ignorance of the poor the best guaranty of their happiness and well-being. "We now realize," says the report, "that the maintenance of our Union, the development of our free institutions, and the perfect restoration of harmony between the sections, depend upon the increase of intelligence, and the general lifting up to light and knowledge of those who have hitherto been in darkness and ignorance. Everywhere in the North has the obligation resting upon the community been recognized, so that, notwithstanding the war, more school-houses have been built, more endowments to colleges raised, and more liberal donations made to enterprises for the advancement of humanity, than in all the previous years of our history. For the South, now that the blight of slavery has been removed, and the bondmen, heretofore prevented under cruel penalties from even learning how to read, have been elevated to the noble position of American citizens, it is evident that the duty of the hour, far exceeding any political plans, financial schemes, or commercial enterprises, is to provide FREE SCHOOLS FOR ALL." It is in this honest recognition of the rights of *all* men—nowhere better seen than in matters pertaining to education—that the difference of spirit between the new and the old *regime* is best shown. The present Trustees desire for the District a school system which shall provide thoroughly for the primary education of all who are of suitable age, "leaving to the future the establishment of higher schools." They insist upon the immediate increase of primary schools, for, though eighteen new schools were added last year, the school-houses are insufficient to accommodate half the children eagerly seeking admission. These applicants are mostly from six to ten years of age. "The higher schools are never full." The whole number of children enrolled in the schools during the year ending June 30, 1866, was 7,121, an increase of 21 *per cent.* on the preceding year. The average number on the rolls was 4,198; the average daily attendance, 3,696. Seventy-four teachers were employed. The Board recommends an increase in the salaries paid to teachers, and justly. They should be doubled. The largest amount paid to principals of boys' grammar schools being only sixteen hundred dollars, while the lowest grade

of assistants receive only one hundred and fifty dollars. MARYLAND.—In the proposed new constitution, the State Convention has declared that :—
“The General Assembly, at its first session after the adoption of this constitution, shall by law establish throughout the State a thorough and efficient system of free public schools, and shall provide, by taxation or otherwise, for their maintenance. The system of public schools, as now constituted, shall remain in force until the end of the said first session of the General Assembly, and shall then expire, except so far as adopted or continued by the General Assembly.” The present system will thus expire about the last of March, 1868, and the action of the Convention shows that some other system is desired. There are two parties in the State on the subject of free public schools—one, those who introduced the present “uniform” system; and the other, those who advocate a “general” system. The great point of difference between them is whether the State is bound to furnish its citizens with simply a plain English education or one of a higher grade; whether academies and colleges should be included in the State system or be private enterprises. The present constitution looks to the formation of grades up to the very highest university, and, of course, for its full development, needs a large expenditure; hence the opposition. The party now in power contend that the whole fund raised for school purposes should go to the advancement and improvement of the common schools; that mere uniformity throughout the State is no very valuable matter, each county being best informed of its own peculiar educational wants. Of course there are other features, but being of a political nature are not open to comment here. The common school plan is all, at present, that can be successfully carried out, and Dr. Van Bokkelen’s system, although good in many respects, will doubtless be entirely abolished; private schools will be left to furnish the higher education, and the competition and rivalry among them will probably be found sufficient to keep them up to the modern standard. It seems perfectly correct to use all the means at the command of the State to establish good primary schools, and leave the others as they are, until the common school system is perfected. By trying to do too much at once, the framers of the present constitution have brought about a strong opposition, which has led to the overthrow of the present elaborate plan, and has, in a great measure, prevented many parts from being even attempted to be tried. In the 21 counties there are 1400 school-districts, 1219 school-houses, 323 only of which are in good condition. Last year there were 1533 teachers, 607 of whom were young women; 64,793 children were at school, but many of them very irregularly; the total number of children of school-going age is estimated at 95,000; the total expense of the system last year was \$477,425. In the city of Baltimore there are 88 schools, 411 teachers, whose salaries amount to \$205,069. Total cost of schools \$293,902, which, added to the cost of the county schools, make \$771,327 for 93,871 children. FLORIDA.—The condition of the schools of this State is deplorable. The average number of children, between the ages of five and eighteen, reported between 1854 and 1861, was nearly 20,000. For their education the State contributed each year the pitiful sum of \$5,246 11. During the war, the average annual amount apportioned to each child was 49 cents, Confederate money. The only tax ever levied in the State for educational purposes was one of a dollar on each adult colored man for the education of colored children.

As might naturally be expected, the private schools are few, and little if any better supported than the public schools. At present, a few earnest teachers and others are endeavoring to overcome the apathy of the people in matters of education. We hope their success will be equal to the necessities of the State. KANSAS.—The statistics given by the State Superintendent in his report for 1866 would be almost incredible if told of any other State or country; and yet the prospects are that the present year will rival, if it does not excel, the last in progress. In 1865, the whole number of children of school age reported from the 721 districts was 45,441, of whom 26,341 were enrolled in the common schools. Last year 871 districts reported 54,728 children, with 31,258 in school. The number of teachers was increased from 899 to 1,686. The amount of money raised for school purposes was nearly 80 per cent. more than the year before, and the increase in the valuation of school-houses was *two hundred and fifty-nine per cent!* New school-buildings have been erected all over the State, and still the work goes on. With improved school-houses, the people are demanding a higher grade of teachers, and to their credit they show a willingness to pay for them. The average of teachers' wages shows an increase for the year of 18½ per cent. to women, and twenty-three per cent. to men. Besides the common schools there are in the State 83 private schools, with 113 teachers and 3,268 pupils; about a dozen academies, commercial schools, and other private or denominational institutions, with more ambitious titles, commanding 39 teachers, and 958 pupils; the State Normal School, with three "professors" and 90 students; the State Agricultural College, with five professors and 150 students; and the State University, with three professors and 55 students. The university is modelled after that of Michigan, but claims to build on a broader basis. It makes no distinctions in regard to the sexes, and counts it no small honor to the State that it should "be the first to recognize the rights of woman in her educational system." The Agricultural College provides a Normal course for those preparing to teach. It is located in the Kansas Valley, about 115 miles west of Leavenworth, and has an endowment of 90,000 acres of land.

GREAT BRITAIN.—The number of schools inspected last year was 12,130; the average attendance, 1,039,183; the number of certified teachers, 11,871. A comparison of the ages of the pupils registered in 1856 with those of 1866 shows that in the first mentioned year 608, and in the latter year 653, of every 10,000, were under four years of age. The numbers between four and six years of age were respectively 1,648 and 1,794 in 10,000. The proportion of those under six was, therefore, increased from 2,256 in 1856 to 2,447 in 1866. In 1856, 4,784 of every 10,000 were between six and ten years of age; in 1866, the number was only 4,715. The proportion of those above ten years' old decreased still more, there being in 1856, 2,960 of that age in every 10,000, and only 2,838 in 1866. The recent extension of the right of suffrage is likely to have the same effect in England as in the Southern States of our own country. Before, the rich might plausibly argue that the laboring classes were better off without education. Now, self-interest forces upon them a sense of the expediency, if not the necessity, of teaching those, who may become their political masters, how to read. A free school system will doubtless soon be adopted, although a bill proposing one akin to the Ame-

rican system, as it is called, was recently defeated in the House of Commons.

FRANCE.—The proportion of men and women unable to read has been reduced more than five *per cent.* of the entire adult population during the past ten years. Nearly 28 per cent. of the men, and 41 per cent. of the women are still unacquainted with letters; the general average being about 34 per cent. In 1864, the proportion of the criminals who could not read was, of the men, 36 per cent.; of the women, 61—the general average being 40 per cent. In 1851 the per centage was 46. A noble work is being done by the Society for the Reformation of Young Criminals. In 1833, when the society was established, the police reports showed that of every hundred juvenile convicts released, seventy-five went back to their old habits. The first year's work of the society reduced the number of relapses to forty-six in the hundred. In 1850, the number had been reduced to seven. In 1860 only three per cent. relapsed, and in 1863 but 1½ per cent. During this time of the 7,651 released convicts cared for by the society, and provided with houses and employment, *seven thousand* became good citizens. It is a question worth considering, which are most profitable to the State, courts of "justice" looking to the punishment of criminals, or homes of mercy, seeking their reformation through kindness, and the prevention of crime by affording honest employment to the poor. The Society for the Encouragement of Elementary Education assisted during the past year two hundred and fifty-four schools for boys and for girls, mixed schools, and schools for adults, many of which must otherwise have been closed for want of means. The trouble with regard to the Normal School has resulted in its dispersion by the Government.

SYRIA.—The Beyrout Native Protestant Female Seminary in the Chapel of the American Mission numbers eighty girls, representing five of the different religious sects of Syria. This institution was the first school in Syria established on the paying principle, and with exclusively native teachers. It began with six pupils, and now has eighty. The American Mission, after furnishing education gratuitously for many years, has become satisfied that in Beyrout the native Protestant community is able to carry on the education of its own daughters, and has accordingly assigned to two able native instructors the sole care and management of this Seminary. The Greek Maronites and the Greek Catholics have extensive schools. For Protestant boys there is a primary school, with ample facilities for instruction, under the care of the American Mission. There are also the preparatory department of the Syrian Protestant College, with one hundred boys in a still farther state of advancement; and the college itself, under the care of Dr. Bliss, with a full corps of instructors, with its first freshman class of eighteen young men. The Abeih Seminary, a few hours from Beyrout, under the care of Dr. Calhoun, is now overcrowded with pupils. The boys' school of the American Mission in Dier El Komr, Ain Zehalta, El Hadeth, Aramoon, Shwair, June, Tripoli, Safeeta, Deir Mimas, Sidon, Hasbeiya, and Hums are all in a prosperous state. The girls' school in Hums has eighty pupils, one of the teachers being a graduate of the Native Female Seminary of Beyrout, and the other a former pupil of Miss Hicks in Shimlan. In Safeeta a Protestant girl from Upper Galilee is teaching the girls and women in the most faithful and self-denying manner.

INDIA.—Many Hindoos acknowledge that the want of female education is the great cause of the backward state of *male* education there : for when a young man leaves the schools and colleges which are now frequented by many of the native youth, he is removed from all the influences which should carry on and complete his education ; he returns to an ignorant home, to the unintellectual and low-minded society of mothers, sisters and wives. He finds no true companionship in these. He, therefore, falls to their level ; for he cannot, under the circumstances, raise them to his own. Hence the absolute necessity for the wide establishment of female schools in India. These must, at least for the present, be unsectarian ; for no others will be tolerated by the millions of Pagan Hindoos. But such education, although denounced by some well-meaning persons as being "godless," has already accomplished important moral results. A gratifying improvement has already taken place amongst the Hindoos educated in these secular schools. Many of the abominations of heathendom have been abandoned by them as revolting to the tastes and habits developed by their familiarity with English literature. Thirteen girls' schools have been established in Bombay by a native scientific and literary society. Similar schools are in operation in other parts, especially in the northern provinces. In the native schools female teachers are unknown ; even *sewing* is taught by men. In the missionary schools at Madras it was necessary at first to bribe the children to attend. After they had come to appreciate the advantages of instruction the bribes were discontinued. Now the pupils willingly contribute toward the expenses of their tuition.

CHINA.—In accordance with a decree, issued on the 30th of December last, a regular university has been established for the study of European knowledge. Triennial examinations are to be held, and prizes and appointments conferred upon the best students. Candidates for public offices will henceforth be required to show their proficiency not only in the philosophy of Confucius, but in modern physics and mathematics, the laws of steam, and the construction of machinery. The importance of this innovation can only be properly estimated by those who remember how jealously China for ages has refused to believe in the possibility of anything better than she possessed, any knowledge worth having in which she was not already skillful. The first examination of the Government School at Foo-Chow, for instruction in English, took place last May. It had been in operation two months, and of its thirty pupils, three only had any knowledge of English when the school commenced. They were examined in spelling words of from three to five letters, and in arithmetic as far as compound multiplication, and manifested very creditable progress for the short time they have been studying. It is quite a triumph for a Chinaman to master such words as *spring*, *think*, *dwell*, etc. ; yet they were pronounced with entire accuracy by most of the boys. One pupil, who has commenced the study of grammar, repeated the definition of orthography, etymology, syntax, and prosody, explained the different parts of speech, and answered correctly questions put to him concerning objects in the room. The pupils have every inducement to diligent exertion, receiving four taels per month while in the school, with a certainty of honorable positions as government officers with liberal pay when they have completed their studies.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS.

A DECIDED improvement has been made, during the past ten years, in the character of our popular juvenile literature. The platitudes of Abbott and others of less ability have been superseded by the more natural and sensible, as well as more lively and entertaining, writings of the purveyors of the well known monthly feasts of good reading for our boys and girls. Good material for primary school readers has thus, of late, been greatly augmented, and good use of it has been made in the preparation of the smaller books of the "Analytical Series." The selections in the higher books have been drawn chiefly from the works of recent popular writers, so that the pieces are in the main fresh and interesting, and at the same time good specimens of our worthiest literature. The last is no unimportant matter. Since in very many, if not the most, of our schools the reading books afford the only available means of literary culture, it is necessary that they afford more than bare material for teaching the art of reading. And as the æsthetic and patriotic influence of a properly selected reading exercise is of greater worth than any scientific or historical instruction that could be imparted in the same time, and by the same means, the purest taste and warmest patriotism are the first requisites of a compiler of a series of school readers. That Mr. Edwards possesses these qualifications in no small degree, his readers abundantly manifest.

The lessons in Phonic Analysis are worthy of careful study. They are brief and practical, though in our opinion not always correct. The Phonic Chart (p. 16, 5th R) contains no sign for the sound of *a* as heard in *all*. "*A*, when representing this sound, as in *hall*," the author says, "is called 'broad *a*,' and the *o* in *corn* is called 'broad *o*.' One name is enough for a single sound; and we will call this 'broad *o*,' and represent in all cases by *ô*." This is clearly a mistake. The sounds are not *one*, but *two*. Like many other orthoepists, Mr. E. sometimes errs by overlooking the element *quantity* in classifying sounds. Thus *a* and *ô* are alike in *quality*, but different in *quantity*, precisely as are *a* in *air* and *a* in *add*, which he distinguishes by different signs. On page 31 he says, "Each simple long vowel, except *o*, has its kindred, or cognate, short vowel." To illustrate this he arranges the vowels in this wise:

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THE Fifth Reader of Sanders' Union Series has been promoted to the sixth rank, and its place supplied by a new compilation.* This book comes to us with a prepossessing appearance—clear type and tinted paper. Opening it, our first glance falls upon a favorite poem, "The Burial of Moses," which, since its first appearance may be a dozen years ago, has repeatedly gone the rounds of the papers, subject to the mishaps incident to such a vagabond sort of life. We have many times regretted the typographical errors which commonly mar its force and beauty, but here, we thought, in a school reader, boasting of "literary accuracy," we will be sure of a correct version. To our disappointment—shall we not say *disgust*?—we find in almost every stanza that to which "printers' mistakes" bear no comparison—the marks of deliberate tinkering! A professional "adapter" of hymns could not have tortured sense and sensibility worse than has been done here. And this is not the only offense of the kind. The next poem, "Nathan Hale," has been through the same mill. And so, in fact, have we know not how many others. All that we have examined show the finger marks of some one whose self-conceit is vastly in excess of his good sense and taste. Such mutilation of public property is outrageous, it is criminal—especially in a school reader. Let us have no more of it.

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WE regret to find the cardinally vital topic (Invention) in this fairly useful book* treated in the stupid, conventional way, without one reference to the actual needs of a young mind, one direction in the art of observation, one help toward distinguishing its original knowledge from its mere learning, one hint on the verification of its thoughts. The treatment of this subject is crude and superficial, utterly unworthy of the actual posi-

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tion of the work in our academies. All the exercises of the Discursive faculty are lumped under one head of "Amplification." What directness or promptitude in practical thinking can ever proceed from such sprawling statement? The comparative values of the several Discursive forms of thought are never hinted at—the recognition of which, it is, that marks the philosopher from the gossip. There is no presentation of that one natural Method in the investigation and the exposition or "composition" of one exercise, which, in itself, is one of the very elements of intellectual, rhetorical and practical power. That Method is, 1st, Analysis; 2d, Effects; 3d, Causes; 4th, Position, Time, &c. What little is given is indeed helpful; but the fundamental, vital laws of "Invention," (a lying and harmful term, by the way, better superseded even by "Discovery,")—laws which the child, though unconsciously, obeys as certainly as the scientist, and which youth can easily understand and employ, these are ignored. Let the author, or some one else, try another hand at this immeasurably important work.

ATWELL'S EPTOME OF ELOCUTION* is a neat little book containing a dozen pages or so of rules and illustrations of the principles of elocution, and about seventy-five more of selections suitable for practice in reading the various styles of prose and poetry. The selections are generally well adapted to meet the end in view, and, the author thinks, are sufficiently numerous "to be of use to the teacher or student."

The literary remains⁷ of Mr. Childs will exert a wholesome influence upon the young, the young teacher especially, by virtue of the high tone and earnest student spirit which inspires them. Mr. Childs was a young teacher of rare promise, and had he lived to maturity, he would have left his impress upon the time as he did upon the hearts of his pupils and associates. The noble qualities which characterized his life show also in his writings, and make them in a measure as inspiring and encouraging as was his personal influence.

In "The Man with the Broken Ear,"* M. About gives a humorously philosophical story of a French Officer frozen to death in one of Napoleon's Campaigns, and resuscitated from his Rip Van Winkle sleep, after the lapse of fifty years. Of course he finds things somewhat different from what he left, and cannot readily comprehend the social and political changes that have taken place. The contrast between the spirit of the Napoleonic age and that of the present, is finely shown.

We are so apt to look upon the Russian people as in a measure without the pale of civilization, that the announcement of a Russian book strikes us as something anomalous. Nevertheless, we have in "Fathers and Sons,"* a Russian book, so portraying Russian life, that it is thought worthy of a place among the best productions of the time.

- (5) PRINCIPLES OF ELOCUTION AND VOCAL CULTURE. Rev. B. W. ATWELL. Providence: Bangs Williams News Co. Price 75c.
- (7) ESSAYS ON EDUCATION AND CULTURE. By C. F. CHILDS. St. Louis: E. P. Gray. New York: J. W. Schermerhorn & Co. Price \$1.25.
- (8) THE MAN WITH THE BROKEN EAR. Translated from the French of EDMUND ABOUT. New York: Leypoldt & Holt. 12mo. \$1.50.
- (9) FATHERS AND SONS, Translated from the Russian of Turgenev, by EUGENE SCHUYLER, Ph. D. New York: Leypoldt & Holt. 12mo. \$1.50.

SCIENCE AND THE ARTS.

A CURIOUS question was discussed at a recent meeting of the British Royal Geographical Society. Sir Henry Rawlinson expressed the opinion that the Sea of Aral—a body of water having an area three times the size of Massachusetts—had no existence during the long period between 600 years before Christ and 600 years after, and the rivers Oxus and Jaxartes, now flowing into it, both flowing into the Caspian Sea. He said: "The sea first comes into notice in the seventh century, and these two are spoken of for several hundred years as emptying into it. Another change seems to have occurred between 1300 and 1500, and the rivers again flowed into the Caspian Sea; but since the latter date they slowly changed their channels till they found an outlet in the Sea of Aral." This theory was combated by Sir Roderick Murchison, the geologist, who affirming that the mere absence of allusion to the Sea of Aral was no proof of its non-existence, and citing the geological evidences that, whatever changes the sea had undergone, they must have occurred long before the birth of history or tradition. Sir Henry Rawlinson, in reply, said that evidence exists in the writings of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, that a common highway of travel from Europe to Asia passed directly over the region now covered by the waters of the Aral. His opponent admitted that such evidence would be conclusive. Here the debate ended, with the understanding that Sir Henry is to collect and publish the proofs of his assertion.

—An important geographical work is about to be executed under the superintendence of the War Department at Vienna. The old sea charts of the Adriatic being now very untrustworthy, the minister has ordered the Geographical Institute to fit out an expedition, in connection with the Academy of Sciences, for the purpose of making a careful survey of the Austrian coasts of that sea. The Italian Government has also been communicated with on the subject, and is preparing a similar expedition for surveying the Italian coast.

—Pierri, the French chemist, has re-examined the grasses, and has apparently thrown new light on the agency of silica, which was once erroneously supposed to give the stalk its rigidity. He finds, on the contrary, that in the wheat plant the silica accumulates chiefly in the leaves, and least of all in the hard knobs or joints of the stalk; the latter containing less than one-seventh as much as the leaves, and the stalk between the joints less than one-fourth. Hence, the more silica the more leaf, the more shade, the less hardness in the stalk, and the greater liability to break down or "lodge."

—The engraver on grass is often at a loss for utensils to hold his acid, but Stolba mentions that glass and porcelain vessels are protected from the action of hydrofluoric acid by a thin coating of paraffin, which is put on by carefully cleaning and heating the vessel and melting some paraffin in it, and moving it until the whole surface is covered, when the excess of paraffin is poured off. By this plan both lead and gutta percha vessels may be dispensed with.

—At a meeting of the California Academy of Natural Sciences, Mr. Gutzkow presented a sheet of chemically pure silver, three feet in diame-

ter, three ounces in weight, and as thin as fine paper. The color was beautifully white, and the texture like fine lace. This sheet was made by mixing solutions of protosulphate of iron and sulphate of silver in a large dish. The silver rose to the surface, and there formed into a sheet. Successive sheets will rise with each stripping. This easy mode of obtaining chemically pure silver is of much practical value.

—M. Maygrier, Secretary of the Agricultural School at Saulsaie, has just published a critical, historical, and bibliographical memoir, upon the remedies for hydrophobia from the sixteenth century to the present time. This is a *resume* of the opinions of the most competent authors, and is summed up in four propositions: 1. Hydrophobia is incurable, and is yet waiting its specific; 2. There is no certain prophylactic for hydrophobia; 3. The best protection lies in a knowledge of the precursory symptoms in the dog, as they are given by Youatt, Boulay, and Sanson; 4. When a person has been bitten by a mad dog, the wound should be at once deeply cauterized with an iron heated to a white heat, or, in default of this, by the most powerful caustics, of which the muriate of antimony is the best.

—Professor Halford, of Melbourne, in a paper in the *British Medical Journal* upon the subject of the poison of the cobra di-capello, indicates some important points in regard to the action of the poison. He has found that the immediate result of the poison is to develop in the blood a number of corpuscles of living "germinal matter," which increase in great numbers, till at length they constitute the bulk of the blood. These cells appear to be of a vegetable growth, and by their number they so completely absorb the oxygen of the blood that the person poisoned may be said to die of asphyxia.

—A simple method has been brought forward by Dr. Schwarz, of Breslau, for preventing the poisonous influence of lead pipes on water, by forming, on the inside surface of the pipes, an insoluble sulphuret of lead, which has proved so effective that, after simple distillation, no trace of lead can be detected in water which has remained in the pipes for a long time. The operation, which is a very simple one, consists in filling the pipes with a warm and concentrated solution of sulphuret of potassium or sodium; the solution is left in contact with the lead for about fifteen minutes. Commonly, a solution of sulphur in caustic soda will answer the purpose, and produce, practically, the same results. It is known that sulphuret of lead is the most insoluble of all compounds of lead, and nature itself presents an example which justifies the theory of Dr. Schwarz, since water extracted from the mine of Galena does not contain lead, a fact which has often occasioned surprise.

—The manner in which species of the floral kingdom are accidentally disseminated over wide regions is shown by the fact, that in the Exposition gardens a great variety of plants foreign to France have sprung up under the walls and around the building. The seeds from which these new acquisitions to the natural flora have germinated were conveyed to Paris in the packing of the articles sent from various countries.

—Professor Agassiz says that the Amazon does not form a delta, because the ocean encroaches on the shore; the process of washing away the coast is so rapid that no hydrographic works can be undertaken by the Brazilian Government, except at a distance from the shore, and with the prospect of having to rebuild.

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